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ABSTRACT

The condition of migrant students is detailed in this report, which points out that the problems facing migrant students are shared by many at-risk students and the recommendations for migrant students apply to many segments of the at-risk population. Chapter 1 outlines migrant student demographics noting racial and ethnic minority status, limited English proficiency, high drop out rates, frequent unemployment, and low wages. Chapter 2 outlines legislative and funding history from the mid-1960s to today's network of interstate and intrastate cooperation designed to provide the continuity needed if migrant students are to move in and out of many schools in a year and still succeed. Chapter 3 describes advocacy groups and the service network. Chapter 4 discusses the impact of the educational reform movement on migrant education and points out opportunities and pitfalls. Chapter 5 contrasts migrants' contributions to the economy with their hazardous work conditions, meager wages, low status, and poor health. Chapter 6 argues that federal financial support is essential for migrant education and urges a commitment to equal access to education for the migrant population. Appendices include brief descriptions of innovative migrant programs and a summary in chart form of state educational reform efforts from 1982-1986. (JHZ)

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Migrant Education: A Consolidated View

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Prepared by the Interstate Migrant Education Council
A Special Project of the Education Commission of the States
Congressman William D. Ford, Chairman

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Migrant Education: A Consolidated View

Published by The Interstate Migrant Education Council
A Special Project of the Education Commission of the States
Congressman William D. Ford, Chairman

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FOREWORD

The publication of Migrant Education: A Consolidated View *represents the culmination of the most ambitious research effort undertaken yet by The Interstate Migrant Education Council (IMEC).*

This document details the special problems facing migrant students and the programs for this group of young people, who are among those at greatest risk of not completing their secondary education. With increased attention focusing nationwide on youth-at-risk issues, this publication provides information which should be useful to educators and policymakers concerned with other at-risk groups.

IMEC's role in migrant education is to promote interstate cooperation by increasing communication and promoting the sharing of resources and information. Because of our philosophy and purpose, we welcome all those who are concerned with youth at risk to utilize the information herein.

The history of migrant education dating back to the mid-1960s is replete with individual and programmatic success stories. Migrant educators are among the most dedicated and compassionate people I have ever worked with. May the nation renew its resolve to improve the educational experience for all of our young people.

William D. Ford,
Member of Congress,
15th District, Michigan
Chairman, Interstate Migrant Education Council
July, 1987

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Executive Summary

Considering the circumstances of migrant students, it is not surprising that they have more than their share of difficulties in surviving the rigors of public education. Certainly their mobility hampers a continuous pattern of growth, but other factors come into play as well. Seldom is a problem a result of a single cause and seldom is that problem diminished by simplistic solutions. The perils facing migrant students are shared by many at-risk students. *Migrant Education: A Consolidated View* compiles factual information that portrays the condition of the migrant student in the U.S. today. But, in a very real sense, the story of the migrant student is the story of other at-risk students. The conclusions apply to many segments of the at-risk population.

Understanding the migrant's situation involves knowing his or her circumstance. Migrant students are minority students. They often have limited English fluency, blocking academic progress in English language dominant classrooms. They drop out of school at a rate almost unparalleled by any other group in the country. The resulting lack of academic credentials leads them into a life cycle characterized by migration, low status jobs, frequent unemployment and low wages. By most common criteria, they cannot be considered as leading lives holding promise and hope for the future. Recognition of the great needs of migrant students led to establishment of federally-funded programs to improve the students' chances for success in a society that has frequently left them to fend for themselves. Concern for the migrant's well-being began to emerge during the mid-1960s. Since that time, a network of educators and others has formed that continues to espouse the migrant student's cause. This network, typified by interstate and intrastate cooperation uncommon to our system of locally managed education, has helped to create more consistency and continuity in educational treatment for students as they move from school to school.

Funding is the lifeblood of the migrant education program—funding that is properly the responsibility of the federal government. Non-migrant students benefit from an educational system characterized by strong local control. Migrant students who move in and out of many schools in a year require federal participation to provide the continuity needed for success. The funding that allows all this to exist is stable at best, and, most likely, receding.

The funding priorities that began in the 1960s have permitted a momentum to build that has encouraged development of educational programs tailored to the needs of the migrant student. Monies earmarked specifically for the betterment of the migrant's cause have been around long enough to focus educators' attention upon the needs of this unique group of students. The attention has helped the migrant student.

Education, along with other elements of our society, needs to grow and change to remain viable. With the National Commission on Excellence in Education's report on educational quality came a flurry of activity. New standards were set. New proclamations were issued. A climate of change moved quickly from idea to action. Legislation was enacted that mandated higher standards. The migrant student is affected by this movement in ways not yet known. There are opportunities and there are risks. Migrant educators who are interested in improving the migrant student's lot must assess these opportunities carefully while avoiding the pitfalls.

All in all, the pursuit of educational excellence for migrant students is a timely task. They, and their families, have enjoyed little of the bountiful harvest of American agriculture. Instead, migrant students have endured quietly the fate of their fathers and mothers—a future of hard labor with few returns. Change has begun. Change must continue. Change must be positive.

CHAPTER 1

The Demographics of the Migrant Student Population

Many changes are taking place now in the numbers and composition of the birth and immigrant groups that are beginning to enter elementary schools. These changes will necessarily occupy the educational system for at least the next twenty years. By knowing who is entering the system, and how well they are progressing, everyone at all levels will have time to develop effective programs for the maximum educational gains of all students.[1]

With a close watch on the ever-changing demographics of the nation's children and youth, our educational systems can anticipate needs and respond in time to avert major failure. But keeping a close watch is no easy task. In fact, the quality and quantity of currently available data make the job sometimes complex and at other times virtually impossible. And this is especially so with "at-risk" migrant students.

The population structure in the United States is in the throes of change. Both the nature of the change and the implications for the future must be considered. Not to attempt to anticipate this future will substantially increase the risk that our educational systems will be unprepared for the challenges to come. First, as a population we are becoming older. "In 1983 there were more people over 65 in America than there were teen-agers, and (because of the Baby Boom growing old) that condition [will remain] a constant for as long as any of us live."[2] A superficial look at this fact could lead us to conclude that a diminishing proportion of young people means a decline in the need for educational services. However, other data complicate this view.

. . . the United States will not be a nation with a predominantly white student populace daily entering the public school doors.

The birthrate is not uniformly low in all groups. Hodgkinson points out that a birth rate of approximately 2.1 per female is needed to maintain a population of constant size and notes the higher birthrates of minority groups as an example. "However, Blacks (2.4), and Mexican-Americans (2.9) will be a larger part of our population in the future. All these young people have to do is GROW OLDER and we have the future."[3] In sharp contrast to the growing population of Blacks and Mexican-Americans, the birthrates for Cubans and whites are 1.3 and 1.7 children per female, respectively. Hodgkinson goes on to say: "Mostly because of varying birthrates, the average age of groups in the U.S. is increasingly various—the 1980 Census reveals that the average white in America is 31 years old, the average Black 25, and the AVERAGE Hispanic only 22!"[4] It is apparent that the United States will not be a nation with a predominantly white student populace daily entering the public school doors. California already has more "minority" students in its elementary schools than it has "non-minorities." A national, state or local stance that ignores these demographic facts and decides that there is a lessening need to tend to the educational needs of the minority student would be dangerous. An increasing percentage of minorities will constitute the labor pool, voting public and the decision-makers of the future. This group of children must receive the highest quality education possible if we, as a nation, are to continue to reap the social and economic rewards of a talented and informed citizenry.

Additionally, there is occurring ". . . a perceptible change in [the] ethnic composition of the fruit-and-vegetables harvest workforce [that] has several important implications: First, it is clear that Spanish is rapidly becoming the 'language of the fields,' and that this in turn presents a formidable employment obstacle for non-Spanish-speaking Blacks, whites, and Asians who might otherwise pursue farmwork. Second, to the extent these workers and their dependents require special services, providers will be unable to assist, instruct, or communicate effectively unless they, too, are fluent in Spanish. Finally, it appears that while many of these Hispanic workers (including a high percentage of young males) will earn good wages during the years of young adulthood, most will be unable to withstand the physically grueling pace indefinitely and will face either mid-life career changes or severely reduced earnings within five to fifteen years after entering the harvest workforce. There is little evidence, however, that employment transition services or instruction in English proficiency are being offered at levels in any way commensurate with the numbers of Hispanic workers who almost certainly will require them for sake of future eco-

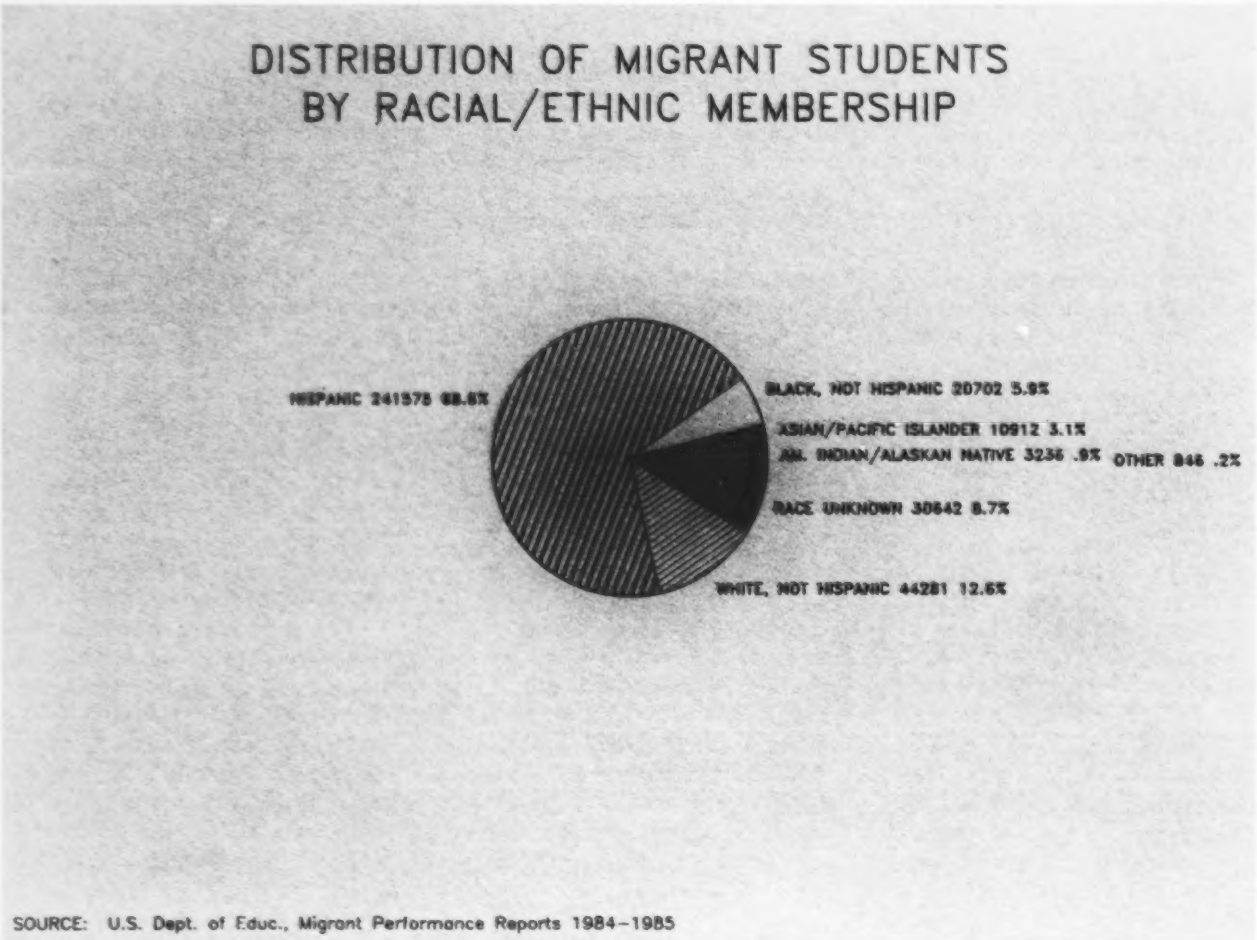
DISTRIBUTION OF MIGRANT STUDENTS
BY RACIAL/ETHNIC MEMBERSHIP
HISPANIC 241578 68.6%
BLACK, NOT HISPANIC 20702 5.9%
ASIAN/PACIFIC ISLANDER 10912 3.1%
AM. INDIAN/ALASKAN NATIVE 3236 .9%
OTHER 846 .2%
RACE UNKNOWN 30642 8.7%
WHITE, NOT HISPANIC 44281 12.6%
SOURCE: U.S. Dept. of Educ., Migrant Performance Reports 1984–1985

FIGURE 1-1

nomic survival."[5] U.S. Department of Education information collected on the racial/ethnic make-up of the migrant student population supports the preceding quotation (Figure 1-1).

Clearly, the more we know about the demographics of our country's future population, the better able we will be to respond to its educational needs. This holds true for our knowledge of the migrant student population as well. The mobility of the population, combined with some quirks of data gathering processes, work against developing a clear picture of this group of students. The best place to begin to understand migrant students is to answer a fundamental question: Who is a migrant child?

A migrant child, according to the April 13, 1980 Federal Register, may be classified as either "currently migratory" or "formerly migratory":

> Currently migratory child means a child whose parent or guardian is a migratory agricultural worker or a migratory fisher; and who has moved within the past 12 months from one school district to another . . . to enable the child, the child's guardian, or a member of the child's immediate family to obtain temporary or seasonal employment in an agricultural or fishing activity.
>
> Formerly migratory child means a child who was eligible to be counted and served as a currently migratory child within the past five years, but is not now a currently migratory child.[6]

These students are further classified as members of one of six subgroups:

Status I	Interstate Agricultural (Currently Migratory)
Status II	Intrastate Agricultural (Currently Migratory)
Status III	Formerly Migratory (Agricultural)
Status IV	Interstate Fishing (Currently Migratory)
Status V	Intrastate Fishing (Currently Migratory)
Status VI	Formerly Migratory (Fishing)

A good way to look at the educational effort required to support these students in the nation's school systems is to examine the number of full time equivalents (FTEs) generated by the population. An FTE is equal to one student in residence for one full calendar year. If, for example, two students were each in the same school system for only one-half calendar year each, a single full time equivalent would be recorded. Information available from the Migrant Student Record

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Transfer System (MSRTS) database in Little Rock, Arkansas, identifies 530,856 migrant students generating 441,375 full time equivalents. The FTEs are further described in the following charts.

The first chart, "Full Time Equivalent Distribution by Grade Level" shows the number of migrant student FTEs nationwide. Although there is a steady decline in the number of FTEs as enrolled grade increases, the conclusion cannot be drawn that less effort and support are needed at the secondary level. The second chart, "Distribution of Full Time Equivalents (FTEs) by Migrant Status," illustrates the relative percentages of migrant students in each of the six status categories.

These data are taken from the Migrant Student Record Transfer System (MSRTS) Management reports 1A, "FTE Distribution Summary" and 1B, "Student Distribution Summary." These reports each summarize data on a national basis and cover the entire 1985 calendar year. Several inferences may be drawn:

- There are fewer FTEs generated than there are students. The number of FTEs accumulated represent only 84% of the total number of students reported as receiving services as migrant students. Typically, the percentage for non-migrant students is higher. This implies the need for greater identification and recruitment efforts.
- The number of FTEs generated by migrant students declines markedly as grade level increases. This suggests a high dropout rate for migrants. While there are more than 35,000 FTEs at the first grade level, there are fewer than 15,000 FTEs generated at the twelfth grade level. This represents a decline of more than 57%. The implication is that there is a need for dropout prevention activities.
- The largest number of students are members of Status III, Formerly Migratory (Agricultural). It is tempting to conclude from this statistic that most migrant students are "settling out" and are beginning to develop a more stable school membership. A more likely scenario is one in which a family attempts to leave the migrant workforce for more financially and geographically stable employment. With only marginal skills and education, the attempt fails to produce adequate income. The result is a return to migratory farmwork. Even though a high proportion of migrant students served are classified as Status III, settled out, they commonly "settle out" in rural areas. Compensatory educational programs are concentrated primarily in urban areas rather than rural ones, thereby affording migrant students limited access to supplemental services.

The distribution of migrant students throughout the U.S. is, as might be expected, uneven. The ratio of migrant students to non-migrant students tends to be higher in agricultural states than in non-agricultural states. Also, the number of migrant students enrolled in various parts of the nation is determined by the time of year. Enrollments are highest during harvest times. Funding for migrant education programs varies directly with the number of migrant students served. Funding also varies by the area in which migrant students are located. Figure 1-4 portrays the number of full time equivalents produced by migrant students in the thirteen states with a total of more than 5000 migrant full time equivalents for 1985.

The Migrant Student Record Transfer System is the best current source of data regarding migrant students. Information from other sources confirm that migrant students fare poorly in schools and they leave schools ill prepared for the future. A sampling of statistics support these observations:

- "Migrant farmworkers have less education than the rest of the U.S. population. In 1983, migrants 25 years of age and over had completed a median 7.7 years of school compared with 12.5 for the general population. Over 70 percent of the migrants had not completed high school and 15 percent were functionally illiterate (fewer than 5 years of school)."[7]
- "Typically, the children of migrant workers lag from six to eighteen months behind the expected grade levels for their age groups, and English is often a second language."[8]
- Farmworkers are among the most educationally disadvantaged groups in our society. On average, they have no more than a sixth-grade education, and the rate of enrollment in schools is lower for farmworker children than for any other group in the country."[9]
- "Migrant students are markedly behind other students in both achievement and grade levels by the time they reach the 3rd and 4th grades. Moreover, roughly three years were required for the average migrant student in some states to advance one grade level."[10]

The Migrant Student Record Transfer System provides a single repository for educational evaluation and progress data for migrant students. It has helped encourage educational continuity for migrant students as they move from school to school. Evaluating the progress of migrant education programs has its own set of unique difficulties. Plato writes, "The problems associated with the measurement of achievement of migrant students are well documented. Language deficiency and lack of social adjustment hinder test taking. The mobility factor makes it difficult to obtain matched test scores for pre-post designs."[11] Plato examined several attempts to evaluate migrant student achievement and concluded, "The data from this wide variety of approaches cannot be aggregated to produce a national report of migrant student achievement."[12]

There are no really good sources of cleanly quantified data that pin-

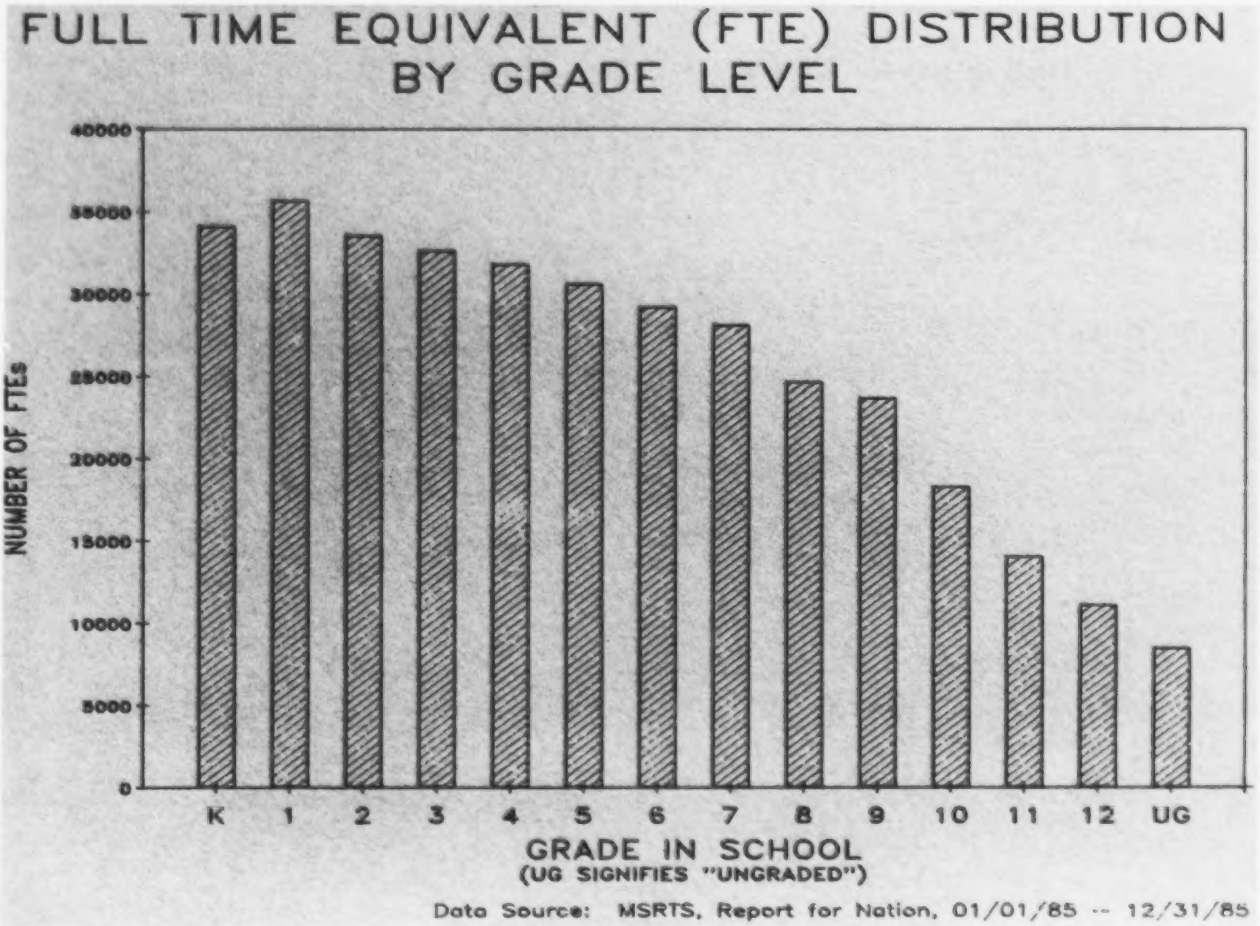

FIGURE 1-2

point the educational achievements of migrant students. Without a single data source, the comparability of each piece of information is suspect. An A is not always an A within the same local system, and certainly is not the same from system to system. The consequences of this variability are of less concern to the student who spends several years within the same educational framework than it is to the constantly mobile migrant student.

Even in the absence of evaluation data, the unique problems that migrant students have in public schools are clear. Many are non-native English speaking. As a result, migrant students have a generally lowered success rate in schools where English fluency tends to be taken for granted. The mobility of migrant students surely retards edu-

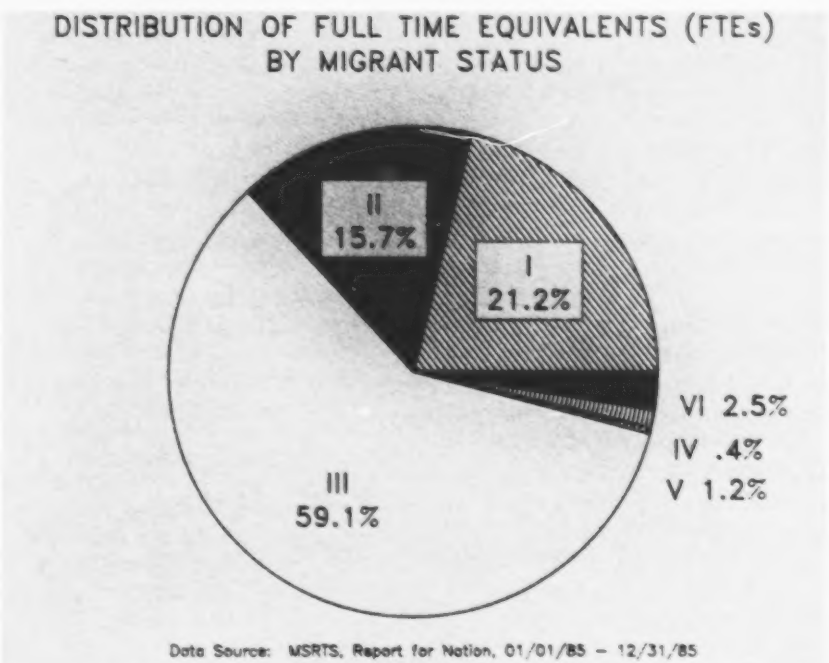

FIGURE 1-3

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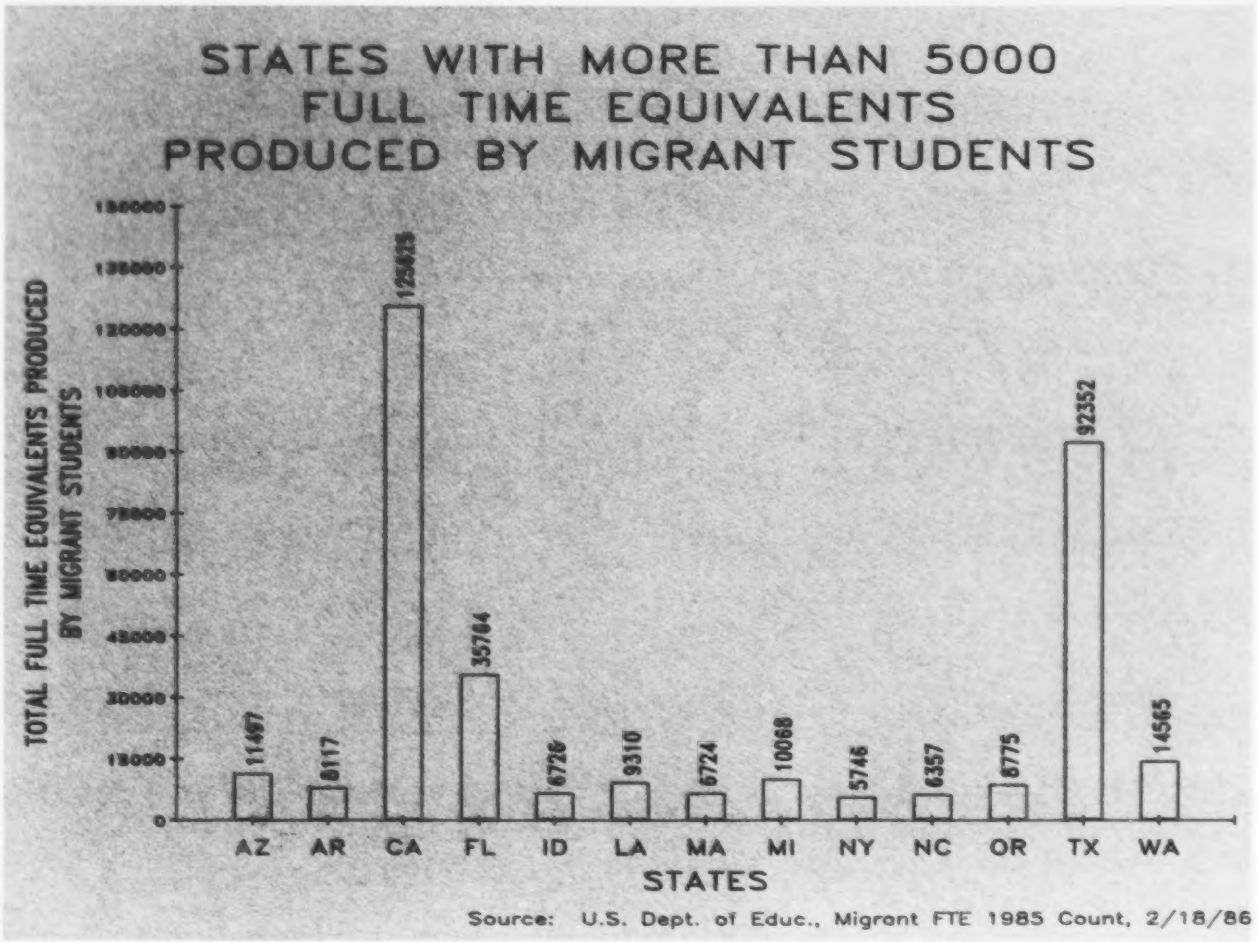

FIGURE 1-4

cational progress. It takes time to adjust to a new educational environment and even more time to learn to be successful within it. This is time that migrant students do not have. Migrant students are typically older than their classmates—another circumstance that takes its toll. Their parents have less education than other parents. Migrant students have ready access to work opportunities, which, combined with a need to work, can interfere with school. They are outsiders in the community and often excluded from school activities. And the list goes on.

The Interstate Migrant Education Council (IMEC) conducted a survey early in 1986 to collect information from "individuals who had practical, hands-on experience in migrant education to identify unique features of the program."[13] It was noted that ". . . the survey was not intended to be scientific; rather it was conducted to help IMEC in the identification of noteworthy differences and trends in migrant education for use in interstate sharing of information."[14] Survey respondents spoke of the unique characteristics of migrant students:

> Many of the student characteristics identified parallel those attributable to the overall family, e.g., low income, disadvantaged; however, several additional problems can be identified from an education standpoint. Among the characteristics identified by the respondents throughout the interviews were the *linguistic needs* of the students. The migrant student is oftentimes Spanish dominant or linguistically different, e.g., Indochinese, Japanese or Eskimo, of limited English proficiency and bicultural.
>
> Another major feature described by the survey respondents is *educational disadvantage*. Descriptors which convey this notion include comments relating to students being below grade level, at low levels of literacy, with limited experiential background. Concerns for the multiple support needs of the students include health, clothing, dental and nutritional services.[15]

The data clearly suggest that migrant students are more likely to fail than their more geographically stable peers. But even this phrasing tends to place blame for failure upon the migrant student. A better restatement of the view is that the educational system is much more likely to fail migrant students than their more geographically stable peers.

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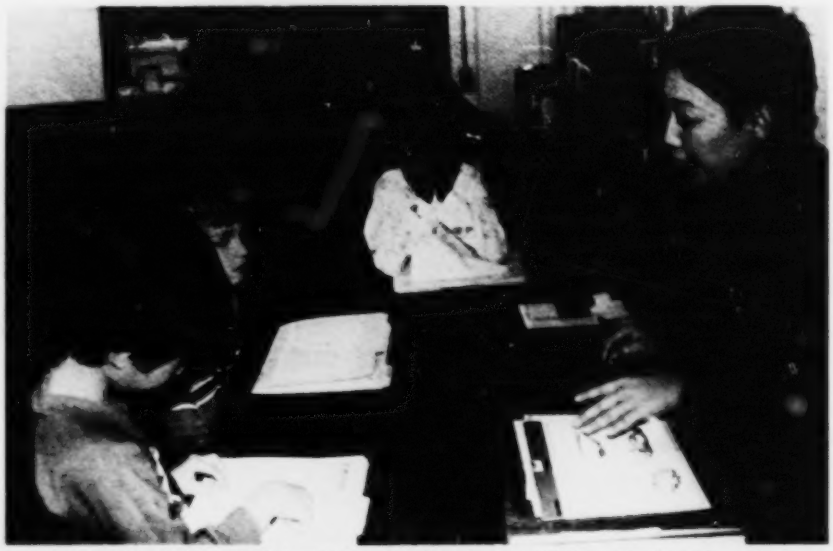

Teacher Cathie Oshiro (right) with first grade migrant children, Dodge City, Kansas. (Photo courtesy of Dodge City USD #443)

The educational disadvantages encountered by migrant students can combine to create such formidable barriers to school completion that quitting school becomes an attractive alternative. Dropping out of school is a remedy for school failure all too often exercised by minority students. And among minorities, dropping out is most common for migrant students who face sometimes insurmountable obstacles to staying in school. Dale Mann of Teachers College, Columbia University, has addressed the problems faced by school dropouts in his article "Can We Help Dropouts: Thinking About Doing the Undoable." Mann feels that American tradition has it that no problem is too difficult to solve if only the proper ingenuity and resources are applied to it. The nation rose to the challenge of reviving science and mathematics in the Fifties, revising science and mathematics curricula in the Sixties and raising graduation standards and re-emphasizing "basics" in the Eighties. Each of these efforts was met with enthusiasm and a sense of imminent victory. A national response to the plight of the migrant student has yet to be heard.

For the general population to be concerned with the dropout rate among migrant youth, there must be an apparent benefit to society as a whole. Mann says, "The fact that the dropout rate [among the general population] has not changed in such a long time [25% since 1958] suggests that not everyone regards this as a crisis."[16] Some other sources offer emphasis:

- A national estimate suggests that 25 percent of fifth graders will not make it through high school.[17]
- Being retained one grade increases the risk of later dropping out by 40-50 percent, two grades by 90 percent.[18]
- . . . being in paid employment poses a cruel choice for young people already at risk. Barro says 'Both males and females are more likely to drop out if they work longer hours.'[19]
- . . . it is . . . clear that what is coming toward the educational system is a group of children who will be poorer, more ethnically and linguistically diverse, and who will have more handicaps that will affect their learning.[20]
- High school dropouts have a rather typical profile. They are usually from low-income or poverty settings, often from a minority group background (although not often Asian-American), have very low basic academic skills, especially reading and math, have parents who are not high school graduates and who are generally uninterested in the child's progress in school, and do not provide a support system for academic progress. English is often not the major language spoken in the home, and many are children of single parents. Dropouts are heavier among males than females—males tend to leave school to get a job (which usually turns out to be a failure), while females tend to drop out in order to have a child. Dropouts are generally bored in school, they perceive themselves accurately as failures in the school culture, and are usually very alienated from school.[21]

For the migrant student the statistics are even more appalling.

- Migrant youth have the lowest graduation rate of any population group identified in our public school system and the rate of completion of post-secondary educational programs is correspondingly grim. According to 1980-81 MSRTS enrollment statistics, five times as many migrant students are enrolled in the second grade as in the twelfth grade nationwide. The graduation rate for migrant students consequently is estimated to be between 10% and 20%.[22]
- The national dropout rate is about 25% and has been for 30 years. However, the dropout rate for the three states with the highest migrant populations (California, Florida, and Texas) exceeds 32.5%.[23]
- . . . the average migrant student had a 40% chance of entering 9th grade, an 11% chance of entering 12th grade and that fewer than 10% would graduate from high school (a 90% dropout rate).[24]

Contemporary migrant educators add, however, that the "90% dropout rate" mentioned in this 1974 source has probably fallen to about 50%. Although this represents considerable improvement, the dropout rate for migrant students still approaches twice that of the national average.

The data presented in Figure 1-2 show that there are twice as many FTEs generated by students in grades K-3 as in grades 9-12. The

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number of FTEs drops markedly after 9th grade. This suggests that once a migrant student becomes fully employable in the fields, school attendance falls abruptly.

Dropout rates for migrant students are obviously far higher than for the rest of the public school population. Specific problems that up the dropout rate include:

- When first enrolling in school, migrant students are frequently placed in a lower grade than is appropriate for their age. In subsequent years, migrant students are often retained for reasons such as size, maturity or language limitations. Being overage is presently the highest predictor of dropout behavior among migrant students. More than 99% of [all] students who are one and a half to two years overage drop out before graduation.[25]
- Credit deficiency is the second most common reason for failure to graduate. Students who are severely credit deficient often decide that they (or their families) cannot afford the time it will take to complete graduate requirements.[26]
- Senior year students are often surprised to discover that they do not have all the pre-requisites to graduate. Migrant students frequently encounter difficulties because of inadequate knowledge of school requirements, which may vary from district to district.[27]
- State or district competency or proficiency exams become another stumbling block for migrant students. These tests may vary in each district, making mobility a severe handicap. Success on these tests depends on high reading comprehension and writing skills, both difficult areas for non-native English speaking students.[28]
- Lack of acceptance of migrant students by non-migrant students. Migrant students are thus less able to participate in a school's social activities which further reduces (from a student's point of view) the number of reasons to attend school.
- Lack of education support of migrant students by their parents. Undereducated parents frequently believe that their children should be in the fields rather than in school.

The fact that migrant students are often older than their classmates is vividly illustrated in Figure 1-5. The chart compares MSRTS information reflecting the 1984 calendar year and Bureau of Census—Current Population Survey—1983 for the modal grade of enrollment for migrant students and other students. The extent to which migrant students are behind is eye-opening.

Not only are migrant students behind, but available information points to a conclusion that migrant students who drop out of school are less likely to return. A U.S. General Accounting Office report issued in June, 1986, examined the extent and nature of the school dropout problem. The report states:

> Data from the National Longitudinal Surveys of Labor Market Experience include a nationally representative sample of over 12,000 young men and women who were age 14-21 when first interviewed in 1979. The data show that among youth age 18 during the period 1979-82, about 15 percent of whites, 17 percent of blacks, and 31 percent of Hispanics failed to complete high school (or attain a GED certificate). For older youth (age 21) the dropout rates for whites, blacks, and Hispanics were 12 percent, 23 percent, and 36 percent, respectively. Thus, for white youth, dropout rates have declined with age, while for their black and Hispanic counterparts, the rates have increased. This suggests that minority youth may be less likely to return to school once they have dropped out.[29]

The GAO report continues by saying, "Youth as a whole drop out of school for family, school, and work-related reasons. Among the most powerful predictors for dropping out is being behind grade level."[30] This finding, combined with the information illustrated above, suggests that migrant students are more likely to become school dropouts and to stay school dropouts.

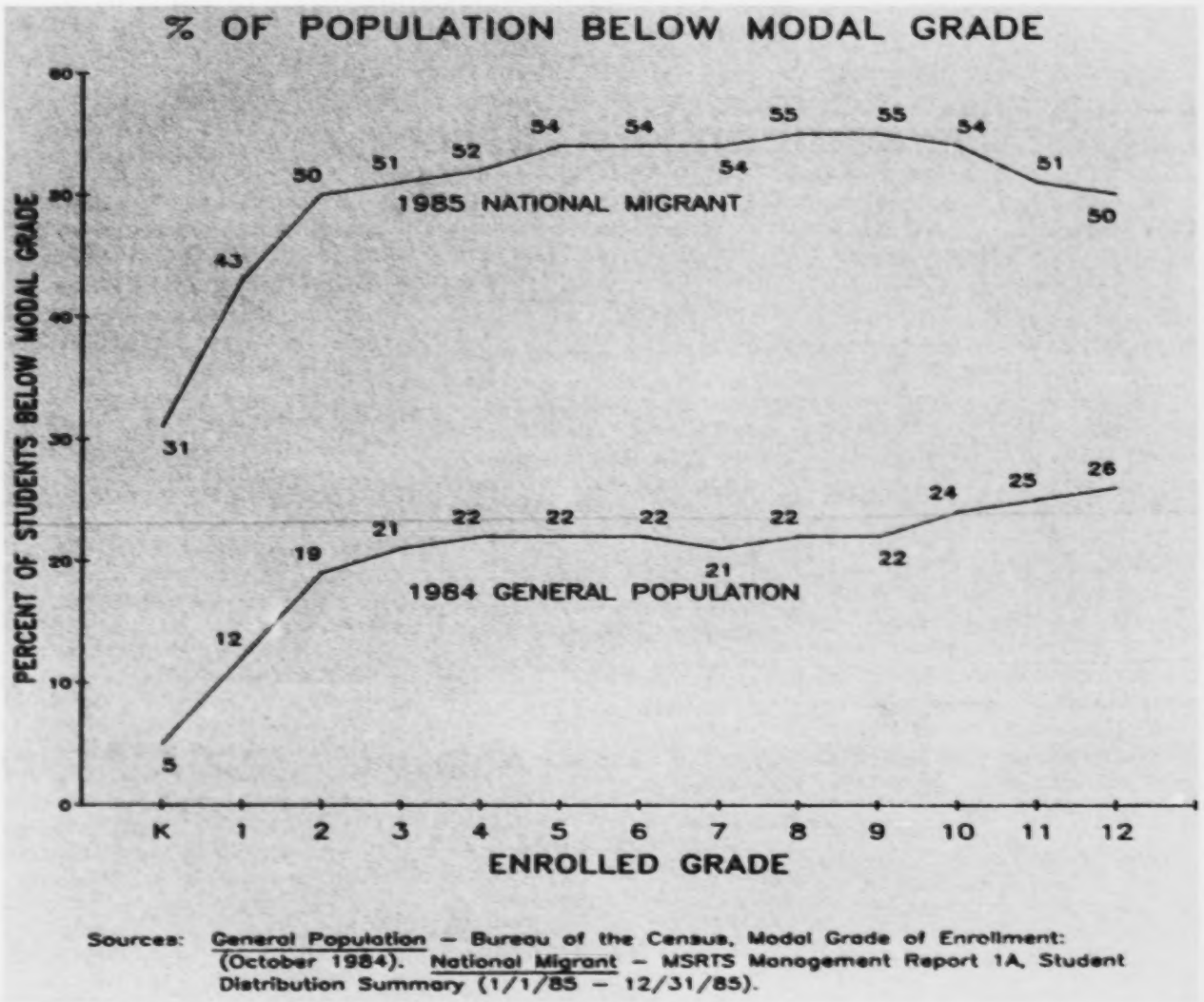
The costs of failing to effectively educate migrant students are not only borne by the students themselves, but are passed along to society in general. These costs are both real and measurable.

'It costs only about $500 to provide a year of compensatory education to a student before he or she gets into academic trouble. It costs over $3000 when one such student repeats one grade once.'

A Ford Foundation official pointed out that. "Comparing the earnings of a cohort of 1966 male 20- to 22-year-old high school graduates with their dropout counterparts, earnings differed by about 12 percent. By 1978, however, the earning gap between male high school graduates age 20-22 and similar dropouts had increased to 24 percent."[31]

The Appalachian Regional Commission estimates that "dropouts will earn $237 billion less over their lifetimes than will high school graduates. Thus, state and local governments will collect $71 billion less in taxes. (Said another way, we would spend $71 billion on dropout programs and still break even.) The majority of inmates in jail are functionally illiterate yet a year in jail costs three times as much ($25,000) as a year in college."[32]

Perhaps an even more dramatic cost of not educating the disadvantaged student is pointed out: "It costs only about $500 to provide a year of compensatory education to a student before he or she gets into academic trouble. It costs over $3000 when one such student repeats one grade once."[33] Hodgkinson underscores the need to ensure that students stay in school through graduation by saying, "The first and perhaps most important point to be made in this discussion is to point out the direct link between state level economic development and high school retention.



Sources: General Population – Bureau of the Census, Modal Grade of Enrollment: (October 1984). National Migrant – MSRTS Management Report 1A, Student Distribution Summary (1/1/85 – 12/31/85).

FIGURE 1-5

In a state that retains a high percentage of its youth to high school graduation, almost every young person becomes a 'net gain' to the state—with a high school diploma, there is a high probability of that person getting a job and repaying the state for the cost of his/her education, through taxable income, many times over. However, in a state with a poor record of retention to high school graduation, many youth are a 'net loss' to the state, in that without a high school diploma, the chances of that student getting work, and thus repaying the state for that person's education, are very small indeed. Additionally, that young person is unlikely to leave the state, becoming a permanent burden to that state's economy."[34] States are perhaps more willing to attack the dropout problem of resident students when they see that these students can become a "a permanent burden to that state' s economy." Unlike resident students, the migrant student is an economic burden that may move to another state. It is for this reason that migrant education must be seen more broadly as a national solution to a national economic problem.

The information presented here clearly indicates that large numbers of migrant students drop out of or fail in school. The costs to society of these educational shortfalls are high. The resulting problems are not exclusively those of individual states, but are of national concern. Other emerging factors pose unique threats to migrant student success. The impacts of contemporary education reform movements as well as mechanisms designed to respond to these and other difficulties encountered by migrant students must be examined.

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CHAPTER 2

Legislative and Funding History

The groundwork for migrant education came as a result of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), P.L. 89-10, of 1965 (amended by P.L. 89-750 in November, 1966). Funding was made available to states through Title I. These monies were designated for programmatic improvements to assist disadvantaged children. Though the intent was to provide funding to benefit all disadvantaged children, it was soon recognized that Title I was becoming an urban program. Most of the funds went to larger cities. Migrant students (who were mainly rural) received a smaller share of the compensatory educational dollar.

> Title I was the largest federal aid to education program targeting funds and educational services to those who needed them the most. While the ESEA did not require any action on the part of the states, under Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, it was unlawful for any program receiving federal assistance to exclude or subject to discrimination on the grounds of national origin any person in the U.S.
>
> Title I was intended to assist disadvantaged children in general. However, not all disadvantaged children were receiving the help that they needed, and one group was the children of migratory agricultural workers. The migrant child was seldom in school for a full year. He had all the problems of the generally disadvantaged child plus movement-induced educational problems.
>
> There were problems of educational continuity: different educational approaches and different textbooks in many different schools in one academic year. Another major problem was the lack of information on these students. Test scores from one school were not passed on to the next school. Many of the migrant children spoke English poorly, creating language learning problems for the children and general communication problems for the school and the community. For the migrants as a group, there were problems of social acceptance in the school community.
>
> These and other problems led to action resulting in an amendment to Title I of P.L. 89-10. The basic amendment which established the Migrant Education Program (referred to as Title I-M) was contained in P.L. 89-750, which was passed in 1966. The key factor in the relationship between Title I-M (migrant education) and Title I (disadvantaged education) was that Title I-M was a supplement to Title I. Many children eligible for and receiving Title I-M were also eligible for, but did not necessarily receive, Title I assistance.[1]

The Title I program focused upon services in response to specific educational needs. "For example, Title I paid for extra teachers and aides, inservice training for Title I personnel, and bonus payments to teachers . . . A Title I program had to be part of an overall compensatory educational program, involving the use of resources from a number of programs and agencies. The Title I program could support the regular school program and, where necessary, change it. . . . Title I could be described as a federally financed, state administered and locally operated program. The federal government paid the bills for Title I and, to protect this financing, made sure the rules were followed. The state education agency oversaw all Title I operations in the state, ensuring that all participating school districts followed the guidelines. But, it was the local school district which was primarily responsible for the actual planning, operation, and evaluation of its own Title I program.[2]

Federal educational funding was revamped by new legislation under Chapter 1 of the Education Consolidation . . . of 1981. Migrant education was then targeted specifically under the Chapter I Migrant Education Program.

> The purpose of Chapter 1 is to continue to provide financial assistance to state and local educational agencies to meet the special educational needs of educationally deprived children. Chapter 1 ensures that children of migrant families have a continuing opportunity for educational growth. For a child to be considered currently migratory, he must have moved within the past twelve months.
>
> To receive a Chapter 1 Migrant Education Program grant, a local education agency may submit to the state Superintendent of education an application to cover a period of one fiscal year. Each school district offers the services appropriate to its particular needs, population, and location.
>
> Under the terms of the Chapter 1 Migrant Education Program, the U.S. Department of Education allocates funds to the states based on each state's identified migrant student population. This federally funded program is administered by the states, the District of Columbia, and Puerto Rico. Each state department of education determines the best ways to deliver services to eligible migrant children, from pre-school through the 12th grade. The program provides services that help educate migrant children and foster their well-being. Migrant children may receive supplementary basic skills instruction according to their needs. In addition, they may receive supportive health services, including medical and dental screening, corrective measures, and nutritional and psychological counseling, if such services are needed to improve their academic skills. Other special needs are met as they are

Migrant student working with a computer in Renville, Minnesota. (Photo courtesy of Minnesota Department of Education)

identified, including career education, vocational training, ESL, bilingual instruction, and enrichment activities.

The Migrant Education Program is project oriented, organized by areas in the state where migrants reside. The projects are child-centered, and they generally operate in more than a single district in the area. The state has the responsibility for supervising the projects which are intended to initiate, expand, and improve educational and supplemental services to migrant children. The funds are supplementary and are not to be used for general support. Projects must meet guidelines for size, scope, and quality.[3]

Legislation is the forerunner to funding. Legislation and companion funding created a time in the 1960s and early 1970s when an array of educational efforts were produced, some of which were designed to improve the education of migrant children. In 1983, a Report To The Congress was issued by the Comptroller General of the United States. It was titled *Analysis of Migration Characteristics of Children Served Under The Migrant Education Program.* A section within the report provides a cogent summary of administrative and funding details for federal involvement in migrant education.

The Department of Education bases funding for the migrant program on the number of full-time equivalent students, ages 5 to 17, in the Migrant Student Record Transfer System. The funding formula is as follows:

1. Each State accumulates 1 residency day for each day during a calendar year a migrant child resides in that State.
2. A State's total accumulated residency days is divided by 365 (365 residency days equal one full-time equivalent).
3. Each State's total full-time equivalent is then multiplied by 40 percent of its per pupil expenditure rate to determine its funding. Each State has a funding floor and ceiling, computed to be not less than 40 percent of 80 percent of the national average per pupil expenditure rate, or more than 40 percent of 120 percent of the national average per pupil expenditure rate.

Since the program's inception, several changes have taken place in migrant program funding. The Education Amendments of 1974 (Public Law 93-380), which took effect with fiscal year 1975 programs, changed the data base used for funding from Department of Labor estimates of migrant workers to students counts in the Migrant Student Record Transfer System. As this change would have decreased funding to many States, legislation also provided that States were to be 'held harmless' at 100 percent of the prior year's allocation. This prevented a State from receiving less money than in the prior year. In fiscal year 1983, however, this provision [was] reduced to 85 percent of the prior year's funding allocation. The 1974 amendments also expanded

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the program by adding provisions for funding students classified as 'formerly migratory children' and the children of migratory fishermen. The 1978 amendments provided special funding for migrant summer programs. Under implementing provisions, however, special funding is limited to students who experience both an enrollment and a withdrawal during the summer school term.

For 2 fiscal years, 1980 and 1981, the Congress placed a funding cap on the migrant program. During fiscal year 1982 actual calculations showed a gross program entitlement of $288 million, but appropriations fell short of this amount by about $22 million. Nonetheless, funding allocations for the migrant program have increased each year since the program's inception, as shown in the following table.

Fiscal Year	Allocation	
1967	$ 9,737,847	
1968	41,692,425	
1969	45,556,074	
1970	51,014,319	
1971	57,608,680	
1972	64,822,926	
1973	72,772,187	
1974	78,331,437	
1975	91,953,160	
1976	97,090,478	
1977	130,909,832	
1978	145,759,940	
1979	174,548,829	
1980	209,593,746	
1981	245,000,000	
1982	266,400,000	
1983	255,744,000	— Note A
1984	255,744,000	
1985	258,024,000	
1986	264,524,000	

In accordance with legislative requirements, funding for the migrant program is taken 100 percent "off the top" of the total Chapter 1 funding authorization; any reduced requirement for the migrant program would make available additional funds for other Chapter 1 programs.[4]

Note A: 1983, 1984, 1985, and 1986 funding was not originally identified in the cited source. The data are added here for clarity and accuracy.

Decreased federal funding in a time of rising educational standards may well lead to a larger achievement gap between the mainstream student and his or her migrant counterpart.

For the 1986-1987 school year there is a reduction in funding to a level almost equalling that of 1981. In a recent memorandum to State Chapter 1 Migrant Directors, John F. Staehle, Acting Director, Office of Migrant Education, forecast the condition of migrant funding when he wrote ". . . this . . . is to transmit estimates of the amounts of Chapter 1 Migrant Education Program funds that will be available July 1, 1986, on the basis of the Gramm-Ruddman-Hollings (GRH) legislation and the amounts that would have been available without that legislation. For all Chapter 1 programs, GRH requires a 4.3 percent reduction in the budget authority."[5] The figures that Staehle reported indicated $257,458,400 budgeted and $246,387,212 following the GRH reduction with $33,700,998 earmarked for state administration. Staehl's forecast was reasonably accurate as actual funding (reported by the U.S. Department of Education) was $253,149,000. This represents a 4.3 percent or $11,375,000 reduction from the 1985-1986 program year funding level. In the face of state educational reform efforts and an apparent willingness for states to infuse new funds into the improvement of their educational systems, these federal reductions seem to run counter to the excellence in education effort. Decreased federal funding in a time of rising educational standards may well lead to a larger achievement gap between the mainstream student and his or her migrant counterpart.

The Interstate Migrant Education Council (IMEC) has summarized its concerns with respect to reductions in Chapter 1 Basic and the migrant education programs by noting that:

- The number of children [Chapter 1] served declined by 640,000 between 1979-80 and 1982-83 school years;
- Between 1979-80 and 1982-83 expenditures per Chapter 1 students fell from $516 to $436 in 1979 dollars;
- The ratio of Chapter 1 pupils to instructional staff increased by 11 percent, from 32.1 to 36.1;
- A decline has occurred in constant dollar funding for the migrant program from $245.0 million in 1979-80 to $216.7 million in 1983-84;
- There have been reductions on children served, both in absolute numbers and as a proportion of total elementary and secondary enrollment.[6]

These concerns mirror those held by most educators of migrant youth. An erosion of funding for the migrant program foreshadows an ill-advised decrease in services at a time when school systems are embarking upon system-wide changes to increase student performance standards.

Despite federal funding level fluctuations in a downward direction, the states have established and maintained successful strategies for implementing a network of educational and health services in support of migrant students. States have created interstate and intrastate cooperation through the Interstate Migrant Education Council, the Migrant Student Record Transfer System and other groups as a means of coordinating services and sharing information. The organizations espousing advocacy for migrant children and the mechanisms by which federal funding is translated into action are discussed later in this report.

CHAPTER 3

Advocacy Groups and the Service Network

Programs for migrant students have expanded in quantity and quality in the past twenty years. This expansion has been abetted by organizations who support improvement in health and educational services for migrant children. There is still work to be done. An elaboration on the programs that now bring positive forces to bear upon the problems faced by the migrant student can help shed light upon what remains to be accomplished.

Certainly one of the most significant service mechanisms is the Migrant Student Record Transfer System (MSRTS). This system, begun in 1969, grew from a mounting national awareness that an urgent need existed to provide for efficient and timely transmittal of essential educational and health data from one host community to another. Proper educational curricula and health care simply could not begin to be offered to the migrant student until knowledge of what had gone before was in hand.

The Education Commission of the States (ECS) set forth the particulars of MSRTS in the July 5, 1985, "ECS Issuegram":

> Another major component of the migrant education program at the national level is the *Migrant Student Record Transfer System (MSRTS)*. Located in Little Rock, Arkansas, MSRTS is a national computer network that facilitates the transfer of education and health records across school districts and states. To track the number, status and service provided to these children, the MSRTS relies on input from terminal operators and records clerks in all 50 jurisdictions. When a migrant child enters a state, is identified and deemed eligible, he or she is assigned an identification number on the MSRTS. When a record of information is assembled from eligibility forms, the student data are added to the national bank of information in Little Rock. When a family moves from one school district to another to engage in seasonal or temporary agriculture or fishing work, a copy of the child's record is sent to the new school.[1]

MSRTS has been successful. Its focus upon a single population—the migrant student—has been sufficiently confined to enhance its effect. Educational and health data are routinely entered, stored and sent along to each new school. MSRTS has become a framework for interstate exchange of vital information about migrant students. And it has helped to establish continuity in the migrant student's education—a critically missing feature before MSRTS. MSRTS has helped to reduce the negative effects of mobility upon the educational experience.

Along with the creation of MSRTS, there occurred a parallel emergence of two advocacy groups, the Interstate Migrant Education Council (IMEC) and the National Association of State Directors of Migrant Education (NASDME). IMEC (originally known as the Interstate Migrant Education Task Force) was born of efforts made by the Education Commission of the States. It began in 1976 ". . . through a cooperative agreement with the states for a consortium to address major issues affecting migrant students."[2] ECS describes the role of IMEC:

> . . . to serve as a forum to help resolve some of the education difficulties experienced by mobile migrant students and to promote interstate cooperation. Among the council's 29 members from participating jurisdictions are a Congressman, 2 chief school officers, 2 local school board members, 7 state legislators, 3 local superintendents and 14 key state education department officials. Both the council and its steering committee meet at the call of Chairman William D. Ford, Congressman from Michigan, to conduct business and pursue project goals. These goals are to continue to:
>
> - Develop broad-based understanding and awareness among education, business and government decision makers of the unique needs of the migrant student population.
> - Facilitate opportunities for interstate cooperation through sharing of model programs that meet the unique needs of migrant students.
> - Identify major barriers and develop alternative solutions for minimizing the difficulties caused by students' mobility and intermittent attendance.[3]

IMEC's mission was well described by Raul H. Castro, former Governor of Arizona and then Chairman of the IMEC Education Task Force. He wrote in the foreword to the Task Force's First Interim Report:

> My interest in migrant education stems back to the time when, as a young man, I was a migrant worker in Arizona, Idaho, Montana and Oregon. As an educator, judge and public official, I have seen the problems of migrants in education, law, employment, health and other areas.
>
> The Interstate Migrant Education Task Force offers us an opportunity to address the most pressing problems migrants have—the education, health and general welfare of their children. Education is one way for people to increase their opportunities to achieve the American dream. What follows is the product of our meetings and much thought on the part of one of the best groups of people I have ever worked with. Our task force has a commitment to positive and productive change in the education system that will increase the education opportunities for the children of migrant workers.

These recommendations are not the last word on probable solutions to very difficult problems, but are a first step in a long journey that we hope will improve the chances of migrant children to enjoy health and happiness.[4]

In its early years, the IMEC Task Force named three general categories in which migrant education required improvement.

- Improved cooperation among state education agencies (SEAs) in the administration, planning, implementation, staffing, monitoring and evaluation of Title I (migrant program) of the federal Elementary/Secondary Education Act (ESEA).
- Improved cooperation among federal, state and local agencies that serve migrant families and children.
- Improved cooperation between the SEA and local school districts in the enrollment of migrant students in terms of planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of Title I migrant education programs.[5]

These needs continue to some degree and in some form today. They are answered by an array of programs throughout the country whose continuance is nurtured by IMEC and NASDME.

The migrant education program is administered at the federal level by the U.S. Education Department's Office of Migrant Education. Federal funds are channeled by the migrant office through state education agencies for distribution to approved local programs. . . .

the . . . programs [those of local education agencies] are diverse, varying in size, scope and duration. But they have been guided by a set of common goals developed by NASDME. These goals suggest that migrant programs:

1. Provide a wide range of services including specifically designed curricular programs in the academic disciplines, success-oriented academic programs, career options and counseling activities, communication skills programs and support services that foster physical and mental well-being.
2. Include parent involvement, staff development, a recruitment component, preschool and kindergarten programs, evaluation and assurances to maintain sequence and continuity.
3. Be developed through interagency coordination at the federal, state and local levels.[6]

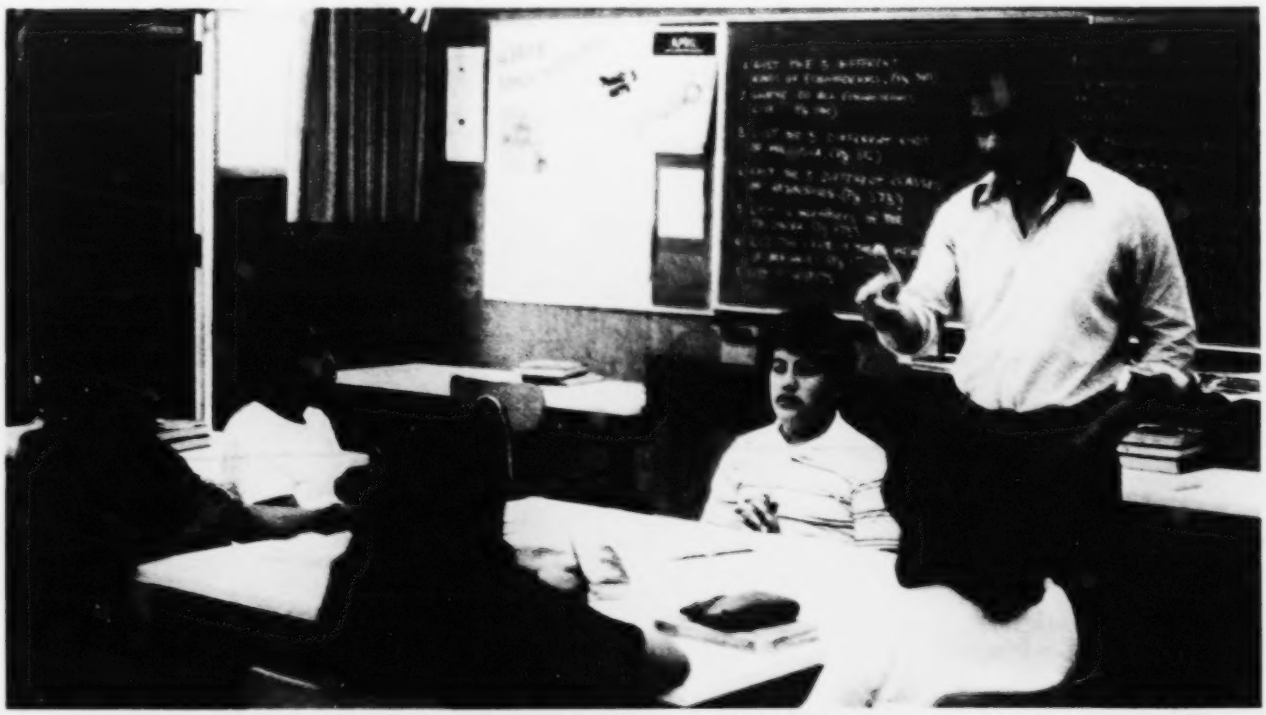
IMEC is joined in its advocacy for migrant children by the National Association of State Directors of Migrant Education (NASDME). Founded in 1975, the Association assists with interstate programming and planning. NASDME facilitates communication among state administrators, educators and migrant parents. NASDME has published eleven points that embody the goals to be attained by migrant education programs.

1. Specifically designed curricular programs in academic disciplines based upon migrant children's assessed needs;
2. Success-oriented academic programs, career options and counseling activities, and vocational skill training that encourages migrant children's retention in school and contributes to success in later life;
3. Communication skills programs which reflect migrant children's linguistic and cultural backgrounds;
4. Supportive services that foster physical and mental well-being, for migrant children's successful participation in the basic instructional programs, including dental, medical, nutritional, and psychological services;
5. Programs developed through interagency coordination at federal, state, and local levels;
6. A component for meaningful migrant parent involvement in the education of their children and in which the cooperative efforts of parents and educators will be directed toward the improvement of migrant children's academic and social skills;
7. Staff development opportunities that increase staff competencies in the cognitive, psychomotor, and affective domains;
8. A component to identify and enroll all eligible migrant children;
9. Preschool and kindergarten programs designed to meet migrant children's developmental needs and prepare them for future success;
10. Development, evaluation, and dissemination of information designed to increase knowledge of program intent, intra- and interstate program development, the contribution of migrants to the community, and the overall effect of the program; and
11. The assurance that sequence and continuity will be an inherent part of the migrant child's education program through a system which facilitates the exchange of methods, concepts, and materials, and the effective use of the Migrant Student Record Transfer System in the exchange of the student records.[7]

These advocacy groups stay in close touch with the problems faced by migrant youth and serve effectively as proponents of programmatic change and growth. IMEC and NASDME play pivotal roles in collecting and presenting information about the status of migrant education—information often serving as the foundation for congressional decision making.

In addition to NASDME and IMEC, there are interstate coalitions working on cooperative projects for the benefit of migrant students. A federal discretionary grant program, commonly known as "Section 143," funds efforts ". . . to improve the interstate and intrastate coordination among State and local educational agencies of the educational programs available for migratory children." [Public Law 95-561].

In the 1985-1986 program year, there were 20 Section 143 grant awards involving the cooperative efforts of 38 states. These programs, varied in focus and form, represent a willingness of states to work together toward the common goal of improving the quality and quan-



Former migrant returns to help this generation of migrant students in California's Mini-Corps program. (Photo courtesy of Butte County, Office of Education)

tity of services offered to migrant children. An Interstate Migrant Education Council tally portrays the programmatic efforts for 1985-1986.

Activity	Number of Projects
Computer Use	1
Curriculum Development	3
Dissemination	4
Dropout/Secondary Education	2
Evaluation	1
Health	2
Special Education	2
Training	5

An example of such an activity is the Migrant Dropout Reconnection Program (MDRP). The state of Florida is the grantee and acts as fiscal agent; the BOCES Geneseo Migrant Center (NY) serves as coordinating agency. A total of 21 states participate in the program. The goal of the MDRP is "To increase the number of migrant youth who resume secondary or vocational education and/or pursue education beyond the secondary level."[8]

This project has set about both to coordinate the efforts of various agencies serving migrant youth and to provide services to migrant youth. The MDRP identifies eight major activities to support attainment of their goal.

- identify, enroll and provide direct counseling services to eligible migrant dropout youth (ages 16-21) through a network of regional facilitators
- identify and establish cooperative working agreements with service agencies to provide services to the youth
- refer migrant dropout youth to existing educational and vocational agencies (these referral agencies include but are not limited to High School Equivalency Program (HEP), College Assistance Migrant Program (CAMP), Job Corps, Local ABE/GED Programs, Adult Migrant and Seasonal Farmworker Programs)
- provide youth with access to a toll-free hotline to receive counseling and referral services wherever they are in the country
- provide to youth and service agencies a monthly bilingual newsletter, *Real Talk*, which features educational-vocational opportunities, health, personal and financial aid information, role models, career opportunities and other topics of interest to the youth
- provide personalized correspondence with youth to encourage them to reconnect with educational-vocational options
- develop special pilots, i.e., Peer Facilitator Project and Adopt-A-Migrant Program
- provide technical assistance and training to state and local educators in the implementation of the program

The Eastern Stream Child Abuse Prevention and Education Project (Project ESCAPE) began in 1982 and serves different needs than those of the Migrant Dropout Model. Now in its fourth phase, for ". . . the past two years, ESCAPE has worked closely with state migrant education directors to begin to address this urgent issue [child abuse]. Phase IV . . . provides the impetus for a sustained response to the problem of migrant child maltreatment through statewide preven-

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tion programs based upon strong interstate, intrastate, and interagency cooperation and coordination."[9]

ESCAPE, located at Cornell University in Ithaca, New York, has stated six objectives for the 1985-1986 project year.

1. Developing model state migrant child abuse prevention plans.
2. Training migrant education staff as child abuse specialists.
3. Involving migrant parents in program planning and implementation.
4. Compiling baseline data on child maltreatment.
5. Improving service delivery to maltreated migrant children and families.
6. Developing parent education materials designed for migrant parents.[10]

The project description points out that ". . . the special characteristics of the migrant population—particularly its mobility and isolation—are significant obstacles to the investigation, treatment, and prevention of maltreatment by child protective services. Migrant educators have a vital role to play in supporting these efforts by virtue of their unique relationship with migrant families. Therefore, interagency cooperation and coordination between migrant education and child protective services is the essential factor for providing the full and proper protection of migrant children. Building strong partnerships between these two systems at the national, state, and local levels is a major theme which underlies the ESCAPE objective."[11]

These two Section 143 projects are examples of how interstate cooperation and coordination can contribute to the well-being of the mobile children of the migrant worker in the U.S. There is activity at the local level, too. Many of these local efforts to improve migrant education grow into programs, techniques and knowledge that find wide dispersion and application.

Just as the existence of MSRTS, IMEC, NASDME and Section 143 programs has produced positive change for migrant students, educators at state and local levels have responded to these students' needs in a variety of ways over the last two decades.

Bertoglio identified some of these important accomplishments.

- Development and implementation of a secondary credit exchange system.
- Initiation of Learn and Earn programs for students who are not college bound and those who drop out of school.
- Development of short-term units (6 weeks) of instruction to accommodate the short school attendance span and individual student needs.
- Development of a variety of instructional materials and methodologies to address the needs of limited English speaking students.
- Use of a variety of models for meaningful parental involvement.
- High School Equivalency Programs (HEP) in operation for purposes of addressing the high incidence of school dropouts within the migrant student community.
- Operation of College Assistance Migrant Programs (CAMP) for purposes of identifying, recruiting and enrolling migrant high school graduates, with the desire and academic potential, in post-secondary education.
- Summer school programs offering a complete gamut of instructional courses and services to allow students to catch up or make up course work missed as a result of migration. These programs run from 8 weeks to 3 months in duration. Some include evening classes to accommodate older students who must work in the fields during the day.
- Individualized instruction is now the rule as a result of smaller teacher/pupil ratios and additional human resources (aides) in the classroom in addition to supplies and equipment necessary for development and implementation of new materials and approaches (innovation).[12]

These accomplishments have occurred in a context of cooperation and mutual support. The federal funding mechanism for migrant education channels money to individual states for local education agencies (LEAs) to use in establishing and maintaining service programs for migrant youth.

State educational agencies (SEAs) play a pivotal role in migrant education program implementation. Each state prepares a plan detailing its proposed methods for delivering services to migrant students. This plan generally serves as both the blueprint for upcoming programmatic activities and as the application grant for federal funding. Funding is made available to the SEA which, in turn, passes funds on to LEAs and other entities to support educational efforts. Policy, then, is an outcome of federal level activities; strategy, a product of activities at the state level. Local education agencies complete the cycle through direct delivery of educational services to migrant children.

The plans for providing needed services to migrant students differ from state to state because each state has a unique educational network into which migrant programs must be integrated. Federal guidelines provide focus without requiring duplication from state to state.

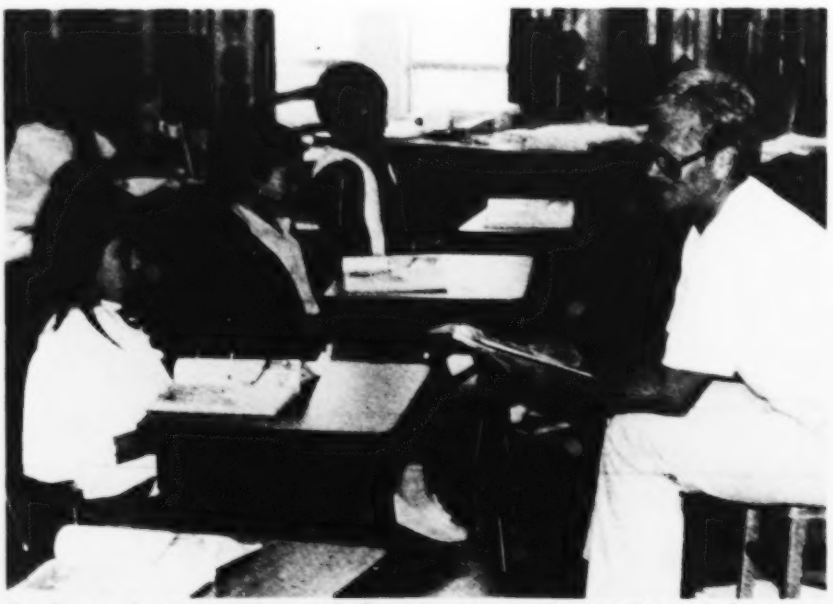
California, a state with a large migrant student population, has written a document titled the *California Plan for the Education of Migrant Children* (for the three school years beginning in 1986 and ending in 1989). Funding requested is for almost 75 million dollars (for a 15 month period) with approximately 2 percent earmarked for state use and 98 percent to be spent by local education agencies. The California plan's major emphases are: 1) Interstate and Intrastate Coordination; 2) Program Operation; 3) Identification and Recruitment; 4) Parent and Teacher Involvement; and, 5) Evaluation. Although the plan is uniquely California's, many features are common to other states—especially as they define the methods for interstate and intrastate coordination.

California commits to "Active participation with the Education Commission of the States and its Interstate Migrant Education Council."[13] The Migrant Student Record Transfer System is a regular part of California's information collection and dissemination system designed to coordinate educational energies directed toward migrant children. California is no exception to a pervasive, nationwide willingness of migrant educators to support interstate exchange of information on student-by-student basis and a programmatic basis.

Coordination of programs within the state is deemed important, too. For example, the instrastate focus of the California plan incorporates these items:

- Coordination with other California State Department of Education offices such as the Child Development Division, the Vocational Education Division, the Special Education Division, and the Bilingual Education Office.
- Participation in the State Department of Education's Coordinated Compliance Review process which monitors school district programs with a single review team composed of experts in all the categorical programs. This review emphasizes coordination of services between the various programs.
- Coordination of health services with public and private agencies such as: local public health departments, rural health agencies, March of Dimes, Lions, Easter Seal Society, California Children's Services, welfare and other social agencies, private health care providers, etc.[14]

Intrastate coordination is completed via a network that maintains cooperative relationships with other migrant-focused programs funded by Community Service Block Grants and the Job Training Partnership Act. The La Familia Program, administered through the State Department of Economic Opportunity, ". . . enables the entire family to participate together in an educational program that takes into consideration the individual needs of each family member."[15]



Reading teacher Steve Palmer with class of migrant students in Tipton, Indiana, summer program. (Photo by Al Wright)

Though the migrant program is of considerable size in California, the goal is to serve the needs of individual children. Migrant education is described as "Essentially . . . an individualized program with each student having an individual needs assessment and subsequent learning plan. The needs served by each learning plan are addressed by the local program which . . . is a tutorial program working with individuals and small groups."[16]

Program operation includes aspects dedicated to academic instruction, remedial and compensatory education, bilingual and multicultural instruction, vocational instruction and counseling and career education services. These aspects of migrant student education are melded with activities promoting the identification and recruitment of eligible students into a network fostering both parent and teacher involvement.

An ongoing evaluation program completes the plan. This "program within the program" establishes data collection mechanisms to allow systematic and timely improvement to migrant programs. Evaluation is extended to assess agency as well as programmatic effectiveness.

The California plan is an example of how a state plan provides the framework within which local programs are constructed. Interestingly, some local programs have become so successful that their application has expanded. A California-based program, commonly known as PASS (Portable Assisted Study Sequence), is a program that has proven successful on a local level, then expanded to broader application. Johnson and others have noted that the PASS Program has been replicated in ten states with a resulting presence widely felt in migrant education.

> The greatest impediment to graduation [for the migrant student] is lack of credits. Migrant programs need to provide or assist the school to provide a means by which migrant secondary students can make up or earn extra credits to graduate. Presently the most effective means of doing this is the PASS program.
>
> . . . The program consists of prepared curriculum material which is packaged to be portable and designed for independent study. Most required courses are available through PASS as well as some challenging electives and some courses in Spanish and Punjabi.

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Aide provides supplemental instruction for migrant children at Crescent Elem. Iberville Parish, Louisiana. (Photo by Al Wright)

PASS material can be used by the migrant student independently at home during the school year or with supervision during study periods; in extended programs and in summer school.

School districts generally approve the use of PASS and award credits for satisfactory completion of the coursework: however, PASS credit also can be awarded through the PASS administration site which serves the entire state.

Although some districts have devised their own credit make up programs (such as night schools and extended day), few have the scope and flexibility and rate of use and success that the PASS program offers.[17]

While there is reason for concern about the migrant student dropout rate, there is a responsibility at the other end of the school-age spectrum to provide for early childhood education. Early intervention has been shown beyond any doubt to make an enormous difference in later years. David P. Weikert, President of the High/Scope Educational Research Foundation says, "over the last twenty years, those of us involved in the Perry Preschool study have watched 123 young children grow from toddlers to adolescents to young adults. It has been fascinating and sometimes painful to watch their lives unfold to age nineteen. Now we have vital information to share about what we have learned from the Perry Preschool study of economically disadvantaged children —information about how young people grow and what we as educators can do to help prevent some of the major social problems our society experiences. The outcomes of this landmark study, recently published under the title *Changed Lives*, are proof of the value of high-quality early education and are a tribute to teachers and the power of good programs and schools."[18]

Weikert, in a summary of basic findings, supports the value of early childhood education by citing some convincing statistics.

High quality early childhood education enables families and communities to improve the life chances of their children. Long-term research shows that young adults, now 19 years old, who attended a high quality preschool program made greater gains in education, employment, and social responsibility than similar young adults who did not attend preschool.

- *In education:*

Fewer classified as mentally retarded (15% vs. 35%)
More completed high school (67% vs. 49%)
More attended college or job training programs (38% vs. 21%)

- *In the world of work:*

More hold jobs (50% vs. 32%)
More support themselves by their own (or spouse's) earnings (45% vs. 25%)
More satisfaction with work (42% vs. 26%)

- *In the community:*

Fewer arrested for criminal acts (31% vs. 51%)
Fewer arrested for crimes involving property or violence (24% vs. 38%)
Fewer minor offenses (2% vs. 15%)
Lower birth rate (64 vs. 117 per 100 women)
Fewer on public assistance (18% vs. 32%)

These gains lead to substantial economic benefits for the community. An investment in preschool returns $7 for every $1 invested (based on one year of preschool after adjusting for inflation and discounting at 3% to estimate present value).

High quality early childhood education helps children become successful adults. It also reduces major social and economic problems within a community. Preventing lifelong problems in high-risk children is a better community investment than attempting to correct them.[19]

Some very convincing evidence has been accumulated to show the advantages that accrue from "high quality early childhood education." These advantages have been described in terms identifying the "cost avoidance" benefits that accrue. Good early education has the effect of lessening the costs of crime and welfare costs for populations who

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Seeing the education of migrant youth as a national priority requiring a synthesis of approaches rather than fragmentation is important progress.

might otherwise be a liability to society. The message for migrant education is plain—attention paid to the early childhood education repays healthy returns on the investment.

The preceding discussion is limited to but a few of the exemplary programs that are representative of others that exist throughout the nation (see Appendix A). California's migrant education efforts are highlighted to develop a sense of the sizeable discipline applied to create a continuum of experiences for the migrant student living in a world marked by geographic discontinuity.

Other state plans reflect sensitivity to migrant student needs while adapting the form of service delivery to existing educational structures. An emphasis is placed upon student recruitment in Pennsylvania where non-educational entities are encouraged to participate in identifying eligible migrant students.

> . . . service agencies such as the County Agricultural Extension Service, public health agencies, farmers' associations, the Post Office and other federally funded migrant workers' projects will need to be contacted to determine the location of the workers who may have been missed during the initial survey.[20]

Even in recruiting, the Pennsylvania plan underscores commitment to interstate cooperation when it states:

> The recruitment plan will also allow the recruitment coordinator to retroactively check to make certain that all the children listed were also identified in the cities and towns from which they reportedly came. . . . Also, the reports will be forwarded to the state directors in those states from which children/parents reportedly came. This will aid those states in identifying the children when they return.

Pennsylvania's evaluation plan accents assessment of all components of its migrant education program. Each Local Operating Agency (LOA) is required to complete evaluation instruments and, through twice a year visits by an independent evaluation team, the LOA's recruitment, identification and enrollment processes are evaluated. In addition, evaluation of instructional components is performed—including an evaluation of instructional diagnosis and prescription for every migrant child.

Texas, a state serving the educational needs of a large migrant student population, sets a requirement for

> . . . each migrant project applicant applying for migrant funds to determine student needs and program priorities. Educational needs (in basic skills, support services, and special areas) of children selected to participate will be determined with sufficient specificity to ensure concentration on those needs. Documented needs will be a factor in the allocation of funds and will be determined through formal and informal assessment procedures.[21]

The Texas Education Agency conducts a migrant application review process that ". . . ensures that the size, scope, and quality of projects offered are sufficient to give reasonable promise of substantial progress toward meeting the needs of migratory children."[22] Through this application review process the SEA is able to place funding support with LEAs and other groups that are most likely to provide services to ". . . all significant concentrations of currently migratory school-aged children in the state."[23]

The plan identifies the five most important objectives for the Texas Migrant Educational Program. As listed here, they offer a concise summary of the program's emphases:

> (a) to lower the statewide drop-out rate of migrant students from the previous school year;
> (b) to improve the achievement levels of migrant students, grades 1-12, in the basic skills areas, where applicable;
> (c) to inform the public and parents of the target population about related state and federal legislation, and involve them in the educational process;
> (d) to assist ESCs [education service centers] and LEAs in the identification and recruitment process, especially in geographical areas of the state in which no migratory children have been identified; and
> (e) to provide instructional and instructional support services to migrant students according to needs-based criteria and all applicable rules and regulations.[24]

As with other states, Texas has specifically designed methods for interstate and intrastate cooperation, including use of MSRTS. The implementation of the plan, again consistent with aspects of other state plans, calls for regular in-service training of migrant program staff as a structured approach to maintaining quality of services.

Nationally, each successful migrant program has a common characteristic: it addresses the need to cross state lines. Each is implemented and supported by states and local agencies addressing common problems. Each is contributing to enhanced continuity in the services provided to migrant students. Seeing the education of migrant youth as a national priority requiring a synthesis of approaches rather than fragmentation is important progress. The extent to which such a geographically dispersed group of educators has come to join together across state boundaries is testimony to the dedication that exists for improving opportunities for migrant youth. It is this availability of consistent, continuous and cooperative programmatic effort that helps create promise in the migrant student's future.

CHAPTER 4

The Reform Movement—An Opportunity For Change

Advocates for improved migrant education have long been supporters of reform. Reform has been the mechanism by which more equitable services have been achieved. As an example, the creation of the Migrant Record Transfer System (MSRTS) was acknowledgement of a need for exchange of student health and educational data to better serve a mobile population. The history of migrant education is replete with reforms to the "normal" school program in recognition of special requirements of the migrant student. In most instances, the benefits from such reforms have become clear. Few would argue against the continuance of MSRTS as a beneficial force for migrant students. Schools have managed to incorporate programmatic changes into their daily routines—an instance of healthy reform producing positive change.

Change in migrant education has come, by and large, at a measured pace with each new gain enhancing the network of available services. Change has occurred as a direct result of concerned advocacy. The current national educational reform movement warrants examination and understanding by migrant educators throughout the U.S. in preparation for action in what may be a new climate for educational growth.

The pace of change in American education surprisingly quickened with the National Commission on Excellence in Education's April, 1983, report on our country's educational quality. A nationwide interest in education was sparked that continues at a high level some four years later. The reform movement offers educators new freedom as public sentiment is more disposed to funding instructional change. The nation's educational establishment, with a history of local control, may experience difficulty in responding rapidly to reforms mandated by state legislatures and school boards. "Top Down commands for fundamental and massive change are poor substitutes for inspirational leadership and/or participative approaches."[1] While concerns about "top down commands" producing change ill-suited to local conditions are both real and valid, there is another side to the coin of educational reform. "The excellence movement, right or wrong in its focus, has afforded the profession a unique window of opportunity to achieve a new renaissance for education. It will take commitment, time, cooperation, and patience. Excellence must also be balanced with equity concerns to generate the support needed for the long haul. The dream and challenge is apparent."[2]

The reform movement offers migrant educators two major challenges. One is to seize the opportunity for change and to make good use of a system-wide readiness to improve schools. This may well be a propitious time to create and implement better programs for migrant students. The second challenge is to remain alert and advocate against shifts in the educational system that may further remove the migrant student from equitable opportunity.

Understanding the genesis of this new, more hospitable climate for change is important. When the National Commission on Excellence in Education issued its dramatically titled report *A Nation At Risk: Imperative for Educational Reform*, it received virtually overnight recognition coupled with much attention by the mass media. What did the report contain that focused so much attention on American education?

The Commission made five major recommendations to be taken as steps toward achievement of excellence in schools.

> Recommendation A: Content
> We recommend that State and local high school graduation requirements be strengthened and that, *at a minimum, all* students seeking a diploma be required to lay the foundations in the Five New Basics by taking the following curriculum during their 4 years of high school: (a) 4 years of English; (b) 3 years of mathematics; (c) 3 years of science; (d) 3 years of social studies; and (e) one-half year of computer science. For the college-bound, 2 years of foreign language in high school are strongly recommended in addition to those taken earlier.
>
> Recommendation B: Standards and Expectations
> We recommend that schools, colleges, and universities adopt more rigorous and measurable standards, and higher expectations, for academic performance and student conduct, and that 4-year colleges and universities raise their requirements for admission. This will help students do their best educationally with challenging materials in an environment that supports learning and authentic accomplishment.
>
> Recommendation C: Time
> We recommend that significantly more time be devoted to learning the New Basics. This will require more effective use of the existing school day, a longer school day, or a lengthened school year.

Recommendation D: Teaching
This recommendation consists of seven parts. Each is intended to improve the preparation of teachers or to make teaching a more rewarding and respected profession. Each of the seven stands on its own and should not be considered solely as an implementing recommendation. (Note: These seven recommendations include teaching competence, teacher salaries, 11-month teacher contracts, teacher career ladders, application of nonschool personnel resources such as "recent graduates with mathematics and science degrees," financial incentives to attract quality people to teaching and, finally, the involvement of master teachers in the design of teacher preparation programs.)

Recommendation E: Leadership and Fiscal Support
We recommend that citizens across the Nation hold educators and elected officials responsible for providing the leadership necessary to achieve these reforms, and that citizens provide the fiscal support and stability required to bring about the reforms we propose.[3]

The report closes with a section titled "A Final Word." It is written here: "Children born today can expect to graduate from high school in the year 2000. We dedicate our report not only to these children, but also to those now in school and others to come. We firmly believe that a movement of America's schools in the direction called for by our recommendations will prepare these children for far more effective lives in a far stronger America."[4]

The Commission report continues: "It is their America, and the America of all of us, that is at risk; it is to each of us that this imperative is addressed. It is by our willingness to take up the challenge, and our resolve to see it through, that America's place in the world will be either secured or forfeited. Americans have succeeded before and so we shall again."[5]

The optimism of this last section is infectious and the response to the Commission's call for reform is virtually unprecedented. Arthur W. Steller observes, "The current reform movement will engulf even those educators accustomed to hunkering down or riding out the wind of change because it is substantially different than other movements."[6] Steller goes on to remark that the movement has attracted much public attention and the energetic support of business and political leaders. "Money has flowed into current educational reforms in a fashion unlike anything that has occurred since the educational revolution following the launching of Sputnik. Governors are in a mad scramble to outdo one another in presenting educational reform packages to their legislatures. Clearly, we are witnessing a unique period in education."[7]

"Certainly, full implementation of the Commission's recommendations would upgrade most school districts; however, it is probably true that few, if any, districts have the resources to address all of the suggestions at once. Long term priorities have to be set," says Steller.[8] "The Commission's investigative efforts have been considered insufficient by some educational researchers accustomed to more rigorous and comprehensive application of research methodology that may also give slight pause to carte blanche endorsement of these recommendations. Another reason to refrain from unilateral and uncritical adoption of the Commission's report is its scant notice paid to educational equalization—a long recognized goal of U.S. education."[9]

'Money has flowed into current educational reforms in a fashion unlike anything that has occurred since the educational revolution following the launching of Sputnik.'

State legislatures and school boards everywhere have implemented the Commission's recommendations by enacting measures that call for a stiffening of educational standards and a refocusing of teaching efforts toward basic academic skills. The rapid legislative response to the Commission's recommendations has been well-intentioned with the goal of improving educational attainment by *all* students. Though the intent is to benefit all students, the programmatic realities resulting from implementation may leave at-risk, migrant youth with mixed experiences. There may be gains offset by losses.

Any attempt to predict the future is a speculative endeavor, but considering how the reform movement may affect the quality of migrant students' educational future is worthwhile. As with many issues of high national visibility, polarized groups develop. Some see the reform movement as holding nothing but promise for the future and others foresee only ill ahead. For migrant education, the movement is unlikely to produce such dichotomized results. There are promises and pitfalls. The responsibility of migrant educators is to help steer the movement in a direction that recognizes the special needs of migrant students.

Excellence in education is a noble goal for America—a goal enjoining the support of migrant educators throughout the nation. The commitment by migrant educators, when all is said and done, is to the pursuit of excellence in education with migrant students receiving equitable support.

Pipho commented in the Forum Section of *Education Week* that "Most new legislation needs to be tested and tinkered with before it does well what it is intended to do. No matter how carefully a law is drafted, it will have some unexpected results. When the unexpected turns up, usually where the law is carried out, it needs thoughtful attention. Sometimes fine-tuning new laws will call for new kinds of information. It's inevitable."[10]

The plethora of new legislation intending to return excellence to our schools is certainly "turning up the unexpected." A few of the findings unearthed by this series of articles are worth noting. In *Part 5: Testing—Can It Measure the Success of the Reform Movement?*, Pipho says "Improved student achievement was the primary goal of the excellence movement when *A Nation at Risk* was issued. The man in the street had already identified the lower-test-score problem and wanted students to do better. It is not surprising that student test scores have been singled out most often as a measure of the success of the reform movement. With this emphasis on testing mandates has come a sharpening of two divergent points of view."[11] Pipho notes that there are those opposed to testing and, of course, those staunchly in support of it. He writes, "But people from both sides are beginning to agree that the complexity and interrelatedness of the reforms should bring on a new kind of test data and accompanying descriptive data."[12]

Testing reforms have manifested themselves in many ways, but a significant trend is toward the administration of "minimum competency tests" to all high school students nearing graduation. The intent of these tests is plain—to establish a set of minimum skill competencies on which all students should demonstrate mastery.

It is foolhardy to argue against a need for improved student achievement. Especially when case after case of declining test scores, "creeping mediocrity" and high dropout rates can be cited. But change in achievement testing is only one entry in a list of reforms being proposed, planned and implemented in the U.S. today. Will the reforms yield further gains only for those students who already successfully maneuver their way through the educational system? Do reforms, in any way, foreshadow possible negative consequences for the less capable student?

Migrant educators are not alone in expression of concern about the possible effects of the reform movement. The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development has published a report titled *With Consequences For All.* The report focuses upon the effects of increased high school graduation requirements. A section of the Executive Summary from the Report conveys misgivings about adopting Commission recommendations "to the letter."

> Required general education courses have increased to the point where they now consume three-quarters of the high school years, thus offsetting a trend over the last two decades of offering a large array of elective courses. Following are some major findings of the ASCD Task Force.
>
> • More of today's students are required to make a greater effort to meet teachers' expectations in academic subjects. Most educators agree that many students have completed high school much too easily in recent decades. In contrast, today's students who go on to higher education will be more likely to have studied in areas that will help assure their success in college. However, the most academically able students are probably those least affected by increased graduation requirements.
>
> • Negative consequences are more likely for high school students who do not go on to college. Although nearly three-fourths of today's students graduate from high school, this rate has dropped in recent years while the dropout rate has accelerated. Although this seems not to worry some reformers, it clearly runs counter to this country's goal of universal education.
>
> • Inadequate attention has been paid to ensuring that the new mandates require a carefully balanced program of general education. Very often no courses are required in the arts or humanities even though virtually all scholars consider them essential to a balanced precollegiate program.
>
> • Increasing the number of units required in academic subjects will obviously decrease the time remaining for elective courses. Increased requirements seem to reinforce past artificial divisions of knowledge, which do nothing to develop student awareness that true understanding of a concept often draws knowledge from a variety of perspectives.
>
> • Some stern pronouncements are causing 'bogus rigor,' narrow definitions are being imposed from the top, and teachers' professional latitude is being sharply curtailed. Therefore, we may be moving into an era which all education for the noncollege-bound and much education for all adolescents will become a 'body of reductionist certitude and exactitude.'
>
> • The thrust of reform must not be allowed to fade into another short-lived social cause that produces a spate of critical salvos and some secondary reshuffling, but no real solutions. Although the schools have primary responsibility for cognitive development, real danger exists that new school programs may impede adolescents' holistic development, which is crucial to the caliber of future adults.[13]

While these comments are aimed at the general effects that recent reforms may have, the effect upon minority students—and especially upon migrant students—may be magnified. "Increased secondary requirements may hit equity broadside. The present strong negative correlation between school success and race/ethnicity already challenges the capacity of our schools to compensate for disadvantaged social groups. Current reports of Hispanic dropout rates reach as high as 80 percent in New York City and 70 percent in Chicago."[14] The ASCD Task Force concludes: "The national commitment to equal opportunity places a serious responsibility on all of us to weigh any proposal very carefully if it seems likely to disengage more people from the functioning citizenry."[15]

Odden remarks that "Excellence and equity are integrally linked.

Science teacher Ted Beverly (left) with students in summer institute on University of South Florida campus in Tampa, Florida. (Photo by Frank Compano)

Together, they provide the key to improving the position of the United States in the world market, by enabling American workers at 'all' levels to outperform their counterparts in other countries. Together, they are also the embodiment of the American dream, which focuses on maximizing potential rather than on reinforcing advantage."[16]

Odden's view of excellence and equity being "integrally linked" is vital in developing strategies for improved educational opportunities for migrant youth. The allocation of funding to educational reform activities is a critical variable in achieving success. "The rub is that some local school districts cannot fund even an adequate educational program on their own. It is generally recognized that the educational gap between the 'haves' and the 'have nots' will widen if some intervention is not instigated. Perhaps, unfortunately, the allocation of money is the most expedient means of attending to this matter of equity or quality."

Most would agree that widening the gap between the haves and the have-nots is to be avoided. Action to prevent needed educational reform on the assumption that "doing nothing" is better than helping some students get further ahead is an unacceptable approach to the problem. Educational policies and practices that assist all students is the solution of choice. But with all the demands of newly emerging legislation now lying on the desks of educators awaiting action, American education could move more toward schooling for the already capable at the expense of the bulk of our nation's future populace. Programmatic and funding priorities sometime seem contradictory to the interests of the at-risk, migrant student. Increased requirements call for increased compensatory and alternative programs to ensure equity in educational opportunity. Any other orientation will only further isolate these students from an education so vital to a successful future.

Despite uneasiness about the effects of the reform movement among advocates of improved education for at-risk youth, there is a balancing sense of optimism. Educators of migrant youth see reform movement goals as holding promise for migrants. The issues of reform are not simple. Reaching a single conclusion about whether the net effect of this complex reform movement will be positive or negative for migrant students is not easy. By understanding the reforms and their contexts, migrant educators can develop a sensitivity to the possibilities.

Differing markedly from the major educational programs of an earlier era, the funding for the excellence in education reform movement has come from state treasuries, not the federal government. "The school reforms initiated in 1983 and 1984, then, differed in several important ways from past ones. In contrast to earlier post-war reforms, like those of the Sputnik and Great Society eras, these were state, not federally-sponsored. Unlike school financing reform, they were directed at the core processes of schooling—who teaches, what is to be learned, and in some cases, even how it is to be learned. And unlike earlier programs directed primarily at special subgroups (e.g., the poor, limited English-speaking, gifted, and handicapped), these were aimed at all students. Perhaps the greatest difference, however, was their comprehensiveness and the remarkable speed with which these policies spread across the states."[17]

South Carolina was one of the earlier states to begin a sweeping process of educational reform. Notably, funding for the reform was not limited to mainstream educational efforts, but included provisions for compensatory programs intended to provide less successful students with support, too. Early results from South Carolina disclose improved achievement following the adoption and funding of its educational reforms.

Peterson and Strasler report that "Since 1977, South Carolina has been attempting to make substantial improvements in her public elementary and secondary schools. Although the educational reforms initiated were designed to help all students

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improve, a number of special initiatives have been taken to help children who often are at-risk of experiencing problems in the schools (i.e., low-income, minorities, disadvantaged and handicapped.)"[18]

The educational reforms referred to are summarized here.

1. Financial Reform—The South Carolina Education Finance Act of 1977 consisted of a more equalized school finance system by using a portion of new state funds to compensate property-poor school districts, many of which have a majority-black population. . . .[19]
   Funds were also added to reduce class size, to add music, art and physical education teachers, to expand programs for the handicapped, to guarantee minimum teacher salaries and, finally, to increase school and district level accountability.
2. Basic Skills Assessment Program—This program focuses upon basic skills testing and instruction from entry into first grade through high school.[20] This program includes notifying parents of results and mandates that . . . schools must address specific student deficiencies noted by the tests.[21] The Basic Skills Assessment Program was begun in 1978 and was wholly implemented by 1983.
3. Kindergarten and Child Development —Reforms were passed that increased kindergarten attendance and created child development services for 3, 4 and 5 year olds. In addition, an interagency early childhood committee under the Governor's Office was formed and charged with improving educational development services for young children, particularly at-risk children."[22]
4. Teacher Certification—Implementation of a new teacher competency testing program was begun in 1979. This was combined with frequent performance evaluation during the early years of a teacher's service.
5. South Carolina Education Improvement Act of 1984—Sales tax and education appropriations produced increased funding. This Act . . . consists of higher standards, but unlike many states, it provides extra help to meet those standards.[23] Additional help is given to any student below basic skills standards in grades 1-9.[24] Interestingly, the South Carolina funded program is larger than the Federal Chapter I program in the state.

Through examination of test scores, an attempt was made to assess longitudinal achievement gains or losses for students at several grade levels. The tests, procedures and data are expounded in Peterson and Strasler's paper. They conclude:

> Concerns raised about possible negative consequences of the recent educational reforms on minority children, such as Black children, are not substantiated by this investigation of educational reforms in South Carolina. In fact, this investigation found that Black students and all students in South Carolina made substantial progress since their educational reforms have been implemented.
>
> Although almost all states enacting major reforms have raised student standards for either promotion, graduation or entrance into college, many of the reforms in a number of states do not contain significant initiatives to help at-risk children or youth. South Carolina's series of reforms do contain a number of special initiatives to provide extra help to children and youth who may be at risk of not meeting the higher standards. Therefore, the results of this investigation may not be able to be generalized to other states which have enacted major education reforms.[25]

While South Carolina was one of the first states to undertake substantial reform efforts, "Educational reform activities in New York predated the report of the National Commission on Excellence in Education by a number of years. The spirit of educational innovation and reform has always been strong in the state."[26]

Early in the 70s, teacher education and certification was revamped. Curriculum revision and modification to graduation standards took place in the mid-1970s. "New York has been administering a statewide basic competency testing program for students since 1973. This Regents Competency Testing program has been integrated with the more traditional state Regents Examination to provide a comprehensive program for student assessment and school accountability. Results of the program have been used since 1978 as a basis . . . to improve pupil performance."[27]

Ward and Santelli examine the prospects for New York's successful implementation of its reform program by writing ". . . the desire and commitment must exist to take such actions as are necessary to effectuate reform and to provide the necessary financial resources. The lack of either one will doom the reform effort in New York and every other state."[28]

Though the reform efforts of South Carolina and New York are highlighted in this report, they are by no means the only states undertaking substantive revision of their educational systems. So widespread is the reform movement, a tome of considerable length would be required to detail the flurry of activity taking place throughout the nation. The Education Commission of the States conducted a national survey of reform activity and identified, where possible, the source of each reform. The results of this work are summarized in Appendix B.

With only a few years having passed since the issuance of the National Commission on Excellence in Education report, there is scant history to examine for answering whether the at-risk migrant student will fare better than before. That individual states have taken it upon themselves to begin reform in response to the report is underscored by a report entitled *The States' Excellence in Education Commissions: Who's Looking Out for At-Risk Youth* (MDC, Inc., 1985). The report says, "By February 1984—10 months after the National Commission on Excellence in Education's report was issued—47 of the states had at least one

CHAPTER 5

Harvest of Plenty

Migrant farmworkers have been an invisible group to most of society. A family living in one place, then another, has neither the time nor the energy to establish an intricate network of contacts within the community. Yet it is just such a network that allows familiarity with the community to grow to a point where the resources of the community can be mustered when help is needed.

As the produce harvested by migrants is consumed daily without conscious thought of how it came to the table, so is the migrant farmworker's economic contribution consumed without conscious awareness of its value. Although the income levels of average farmworkers do not target them as consumers to be courted by American business, they are an integral part of the economic machinery that has made American agriculture successful.

Annual wages for migratory farmworkers are low. The U.S. Department of Agriculture's *Agricultural Statistics 1984* supports this conclusion. In 1983, there were 226,000 migratory farmworkers with 25 days or more of hired farm work who were counted in a statistical class further defined as:

> . . . persons 14 years of age and over in the civilian noninstitutional population at or near the end of the year who did migratory farm work at some time during the year. Migratory workers are those who leave their homes temporarily overnight to do farm work in another county or state. Does not include foreign nationals brought into the United States to do farm work who have left the country before the time of the survey.[1]

In 1981, the Department of Agriculture reported 115,000 such workers and in 1979, 217,000. Counts for the years from 1969 through 1977 hover around 200,000.

For an average of 145 days spent at farm work in 1983, the migratory worker's mean earnings for the year were $5,338. These workers supplemented their wages by nonfarm labor and boosted the average total days worked to 206. The combined average income from both farm and nonfarm work was $6,178. For the farm labor portion of earnings, a quick calculation reveals an average monthly income of only $444.83. Even the combined farm and nonfarm income yields an average monthly wage of only $514.83. In 1981 (there was no data collected in 1982) the average monthly earnings were $280.08 for farm work alone and $355.08 for farm and nonfarm work combined. Average monthly wages for 1979 were, respectively, $249.67 and $417.00.

The value of the products migrant farmworkers help bring to the marketplace places the wages received in perspective. Again, Department of Agriculture statistics for 1984 are used.[2]

Crop	Value of Production ($1000)		
	1981	1982	1983
Potatoes	1,831,474	1,562,639	1,869,946
Sugarbeets	803,569	740,342	n.a.
Grapes	1,323,310	1,360,922	1,070,833
Cherries	158,852	127,383	174,773
Oranges	1,295,281	1,167,795	1,400,242
Lettuce	681,470	755,490	783,601
Tomatoes	946,199	1,131,405	1,133,362
Annual Totals	7,040,155	6,845,976	6,432,757

Even for this abbreviated list of crops, the total value for the years 1981, 1982 and 1983 exceeds twenty billion dollars.

National statistics enumerating billion dollar crop values are composites of agricultural incomes for

Janie Rodriguez reads to migrant children at migrant camp near Kalamazoo, Michigan. (Photo by Al Wright)

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state-wide task force or commission analyzing some aspect of education. Some states had several looking at different issues. The opportunity to take a fresh look at educational goals from the broadest possible perspective clearly was at hand."[29]

MDC declared that, "As an organization working for educational and employment opportunities for disadvantaged youth for 18 years, MDC shared the concern that a new educational crusade might leave underachieving students even farther behind. With youth unemployment rising again to well over 20 percent for all youth and to around 40 percent for minority youth, we feared the consequences of policies that might actually impel more unprepared youth to drop out of school."[30]

The results of the MDC survey of the ". . . deliberations and recommendations of the newly formed education commissions . . . applied to at-risk youth"[31] are revealing. While some 27 percent of the 14 states surveyed felt they had focused upon the special needs of "youth not continuing education after high school,"[32] only 2 percent identified migrants as having received the same consideration. Some commissions, it should be pointed out, ". . . did not feel that all of these groupings [those posed by MCD's survey instrument] were legitimate targets in their states (migrants, for instance, in some states)."[33] The MDC survey goes on to comment, "Just as clearly from the responses, however, many commissions felt that focusing on specific target groups of youth was a bad idea. One commission staff member responded by writing on his survey this way: "Wanted across-the-board reforms to benefit all students. Educators don't like to separate out economically disadvantaged students from better-off students. Feel it stigmatizes these youth. Also, these are the kids who present the most difficulty and are the least responsive to teachers.'"[34]

Despite the fact that not all commissions see migrant education as a legitimate concern for their individual states, it is significant that MDC concludes: "All caveats to one side—the survey was not returned by all commissions; some states are likely to be slighted in results—one conclusion seems inescapable. With almost two-thirds of the states represented in returns, it is safe to say that at-risk youth do not yet figure seriously in this nation's plans to achieve educational excellence. It is clear that when we think of 'excellence' we think of students most capable, most ready, to achieve."[35]

The migrant student, being the least visible member of this at-risk group of young people, seems less likely to be singled out for special assistance than other members of the group. The MDC report's Executive Summary contains a terse answer to an important question. "This survey attempted to answer one central question: Whether, on the whole, the educational excellence commissions established in the states over the last few years have paid attention to the at-risk youth who make up as much as one-third of all high school students. The answer is no."[36]

> We concluded from this survey that, while overall results are distressing, the minority of commissions making recommendations regarding at-risk youth have recognized this problem. They know that the nation is losing 25 percent of all students entering the ninth grade before they graduate. They know that this lost body of students and that minority students are coming to represent an increasingly high proportion of all American youth. They know it is from these potentially wasted human resources that we can expect an increase in dependency and a drag on the economy.[37]

The excellence in education thrust is not a movement to be rejected, but rather a force to be shaped toward successful and equitable education of at-risk migrant students. As Steller urges:

> The key may very well rest in the hearts of enlightened educators willing to join the great debate over educational reform. The very life work of millions of educators dedicated to the well-being of others is at stake. As much as any professionals, educators have a working knowledge of the debilitating effects of inequities imposed by socioeconomic differences, sexual preferences, racism, ethnic biases, etc. The passions within sincere educators need to be aroused so they lead school renewal towards achieving excellence *and* equity.[38]

Expression of concern and a zeal for reform will not make the necessary difference for migrant students. Based upon known barriers to success for migrant students, the requirements being imposed by the reform movement may well create additional hardships for students and challenges for migrant educators. Additional resources need to be applied to enable at-risk, migrant youth to cope with higher educational standards. Without this necessary ingredient in our newly formulated educational prescription, at-risk students may continue their exodus from schools throughout the country. And we will be poorer for it.

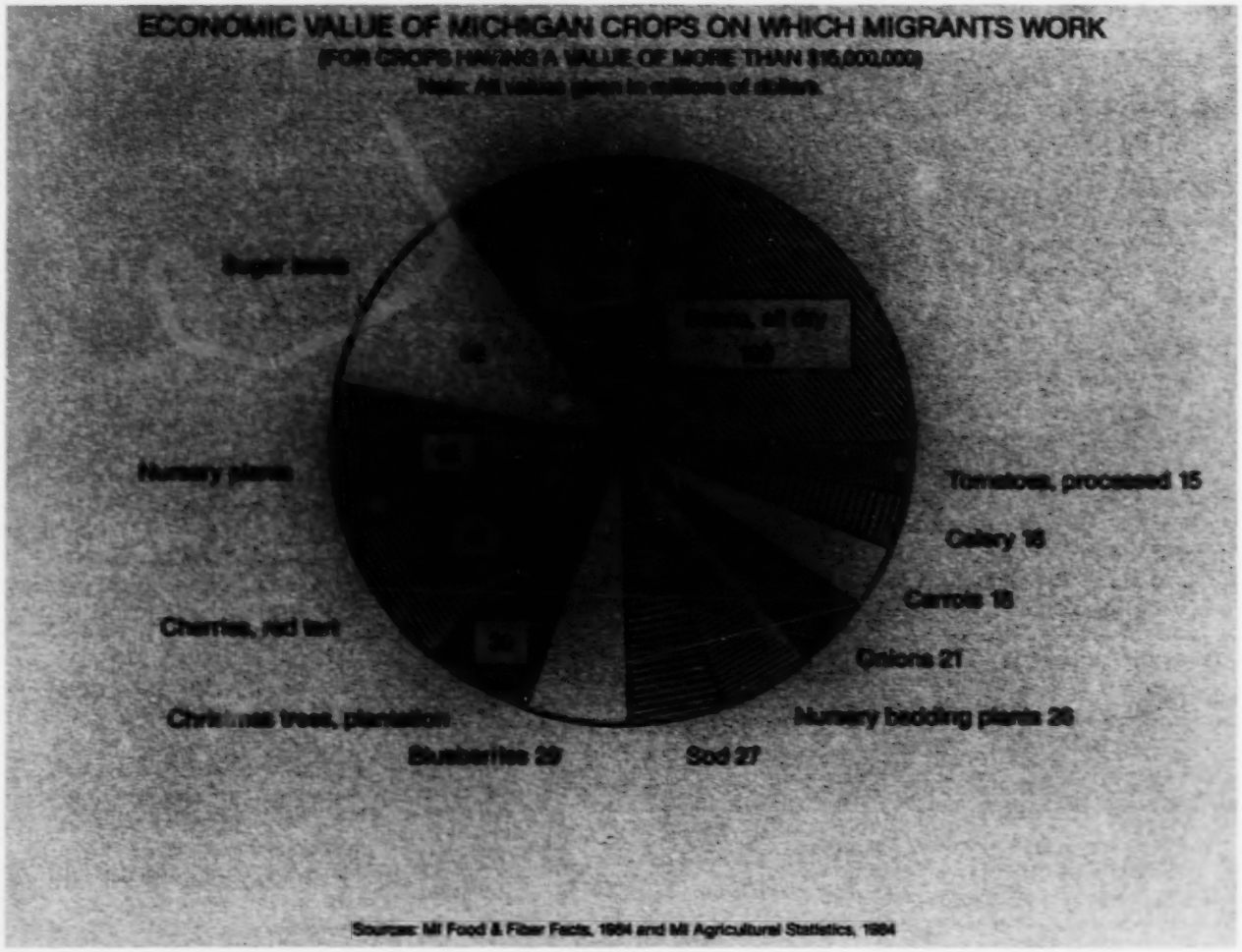
ECONOMIC VALUE OF MICHIGAN CROPS ON WHICH MIGRANTS WORK
(FOR CROPS HAVING A VALUE OF MORE THAN $15,000,000)
Note: All values given in millions of dollars.
Sugar beets
Nursery plants
Cherries, red tart
Christmas trees, plantation
Blueberries 29
Sod 27
Nursery bedding plants 26
Onions 21
Carrots 18
Celery 16
Tomatoes, processed 15
Sources: MI Food & Fiber Facts, 1984 and MI Agricultural Statistics, 1984

FIGURE 5-1

individual states. The state of Michigan published its own report detailing the economic returns realized, in part, as a result of migrant farmworker labor within the state's borders. The value of each of the crops is enough to give Michigan a ranking that ranges from 1st to 7th in national production. Some $501,000,000 is represented by the crops shown (see Figure 5-1). An additional $107,000,000 is derived from a collection of other agricultural crops whose harvest depends at least in part upon migrant labor.

A migrant farmworker's low income level contrasts sharply with the value of U.S. crops. But the sparseness of wages is compounded by other problems faced by the migrant. There are health care problems, housing problems, transportation problems and a host of others that seem to bind the migrant to a lifestyle from which escape is difficult. Adequate health care has consistently eluded the migrant farmworker. A lack of adequate care combines with an abundance of occupational hazards to portend a pessimistic health future for migrants.

The National Rural Health Care Association commented in its release of a health summary report:

> The estimated three million U.S. migrant and seasonal farmworkers and their families suffer from a variety of occupational hazards and ailments exacerbated by limited, or non-existent, health care services. Even a good health care delivery system cannot by itself combat the many health problems of these farmworkers because so many of the problems are rooted in the difficult conditions in which the farmworkers must live and work.[3]

Confronted with a shortage of funds, health care professionals find efforts to provide adequate care for migrants stymied. The Office of Migrant Health had a budget of $44 million for the 1985 fiscal year and funded 122 migrant health centers in 300 rural areas throughout the nation. Despite the extent of the effort, ". . . its programs reach only 15% (460,000) of the estimated three million migrant and seasonal farmworkers and their families in the United States."[4] The Preface to the summary report concludes:

> There is no comprehensive baseline health data of migrant and seasonal

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farmworkers. Although some farmworker health problems and hazards are well documented, others require much more investigation and research. An aggressive nationally coordinated effort to focus on preventive care, eliminate environmental hazards, and educate the farmworker *and* the agricultural employer on pertinent health issues is needed for sustained improvement of the health and welfare of farmworkers.[5]

It is difficult for the lay public to relate easily to the problems faced by migrant farmworkers and their families. A sampling of findings published in *The Occupational Health of Migrant and Seasonal Farmworkers in the United States* allows a glimpse at the harsh realities of migrant health.

- The migrant population suffers health problems related to poor sanitation and overcrowded living conditions at rates much higher than the nonmigrant population;
- Provision, maintenance, and use of field sanitation facilities such as toilets, handwashing facilities and sufficient potable drinking water at the worksite would substantially decrease the incidence of sanitation-related health problems among farmworkers;
- The majority of migrant and seasonal farmworkers and their families seek medical treatment for acute ailments rather than chronic conditions or preventive services (e.g. check-ups or immunizations);
- Parasitic infections afflict migrant adults and children an average of 20 times more than the general population;
- The full extent of both acute and chronic pesticide poisoning still is not known and needs further study;
- The dangers of agricultural labor on women, particularly pregnant women and their newborn, and on the development of farmworker children are poorly documented;
- The health problems most frequently reported at migrant health clinics include dermatitis, injuries, respiratory problems, musculoskeletal ailments (especially back pain), eye problems, gastrointestinal problems, hypertension, and diabetes;
- Agriculture is the second most dangerous occupation in the United States. Yet, farmworkers are rarely offered or able to afford health insurance, and in 20 states are not covered by workers' compensation of any kind.[6]

Adequate health care is not provided to the migrant farmworker. Another obstruction to equal treatment is inadequate housing. Migrant farmworker housing was the topic of a hearing held before the Congressional Subcommittee on Housing and Community Development at French Camp, California, in early January, 1982. The hearing recorded information (extracts of which follow) that helps complete a picture of the day-to-day world in which the migrant lives.

- . . . low incomes deter many of California's 284,000 agricultural employees from improving their living situation. Farmworkers have to work to be poor. With approximately half the State median family income, the lament of these testifiers [at the hearing], whether in the Imperial, Coachella or San Joaquin Valleys, is the same: 'Would you think that working people like me that only earn $500 to $600 a month can make it? Our only future is the route to the grave. . . . For the farmworker there is nothing except hard work.' (Horton Saldanya, Indio)[7]
- Some farmworkers such as Jose Juerta of Indio are paying up to 80% of their income for housing.[8]
- The lack of affordable housing, particularly during peak harvest, has resulted in conditions of overcrowding which we typically associate with developing countries. One of every three rural Spanish-surnamed households in the State are overcrowded.[9]
- . . . the field hearings revealed that many permanent and seasonal farmworkers live in units which are dismally substandard. Highway 99, running the length of the State and lined with farmworker shanties, has been dubbed 'the longest slum in the world.'[10]

The pathos, so much a part of the migrant's life, is vividly represented by a description of the living conditions tolerated by Lalo and Luz Cruz. This older couple lives in the Delano, California area. Both are seasonally employed in a number of crop activities including tying grape vines, harvesting almonds, pruning grape vines, and thinning cotton. Mrs. Cruz worked eight months last year and her husband was able to work only six months. Their farm work income was supplemented during the off season and the period of Mr. Cruz's illness by welfare and disability payments. Their total income for the year was $6,900 and this must support themselves and their two teen-aged children. A World War II vintage, wood frame, two-bedroom house is home for the family. The structure has a wooden floor, is poorly insulated, needs paint, and provides only cramped space. The living room doubles as a bedroom. This dwelling has indoor plumbing, is cooled with an evaporative cooler in the summer, and heated by a defective gas heater.

The cabin rents for $75 a month and the residents must pay for all utilities which average $50 per month, and any repairs which they can afford. The picture [shown in the hearing proceedings] of this family's rental home reveals its generally deteriorated condition. The courage, humor, and generosity which the family brings to their situation are reflected in Mrs. Cruz's comment at the end of the interview: 'Mi casa es su casa, hasta que se caiga.' (My house is your house, until it collapses).[11]

The hazards faced by the migrant are many, the rewards few. Migrant farmworker labor, though mostly unseen by the majority of our society, contributes greatly to our country's ability to harvest its crops. While society shares the crops, the migrant farmworker submits to back-breaking work that is rewarded only with meager wages and low status—neither of which will buy full membership into a society that reaps the harvest of their toil in the fields.

CHAPTER 6

Policy Options and Strategies

Traditionally, the education of our youth is the province of the local community. Educational policies and practices emerge as products locally conceived, stated and implemented. This tradition has had a preserving effect on diversity. No two school systems are exactly alike. This diversity, while it has much to recommend it, can be an impediment to a migrant student's progress.

The Migrant Student Record Transfer System along with compensatory educational programs have helped bridge the gap created for migrant students by incompatible and conflicting local school policies.

Policymakers might wish to consider development of data collection procedures aimed at pinpointing the migrant student dropout rate. Development of a standard definition for a dropout leads logically to consideration of the Migrant Student Record Transfer System as a vehicle for collecting the information to chart dropout rates.

While student educational progress data is a necessary part of school-to-school continuity, there is more to be learned about children than what appears on their achievement profiles. The aspirations of students can be taken into consideration more easily when day-to-day, year-to-year contact is maintained with teachers and counselors within the same school system.

The aspirations held by an individual child, if transmitted from school to school in the same manner as academic information, might allow school staff to provide another dimension of support to migrant children. This information might include details on special talents, awards, or accomplishments in sports. Again, MSRTS could serve as the communications medium.

Academic progress remains a significant yardstick against which programmatic success is measured. There is work in this area that can be considered. For example, a national collection of achievement data combined with a regular reporting system would allow comparison of migrant progress to national, more stable groups to determine the nature and magnitude of migrant student needs.

Also, much could be learned from information gathered through a national follow-up study designed to compare "life achievements" of individuals who recently left the migrant program to those who terminated fifteen years ago. The study might take the form of a random sampling from a stratified age grouping. The results of the study could detect progress in migrant education over time. Correlations between improved achievement and increased supplementary support could be examined.

Migrant educators have shown a tenacity for solving problems and have remained proponents of sharing ideas.

Migrant educators have shown a tenacity for solving problems and have remained proponents of sharing ideas. Earlier chapters in this report are replete with examples of instructional innovation. The California PASS Program is an attempt to go beyond the exchange of student progress data to provide improved programmatic continuity from school to school. ESCAPE concerns itself with the tragedies surrounding child abuse as it builds prevention and support networks. Many programs embody features specifically intended to improve the migrant student's opportunity for acquiring a quality education.

A concerted effort to extend programmatic options could allow teachers in schools having large migrant enrollments more flexibility in serving migrant needs. A pre-existing "menu" of programs and solutions would avoid redundancy of effort where workable solutions have already been formed.

The policy and program options noted above are possible extensions to an already existing network of cooperation among migrant educators. State education agencies, local education agencies and community organizations have developed cooperative working relationships to serve the migrant child. Migrant educators have broken tradition by extending the boundaries of the school world beyond city limits and state lines.

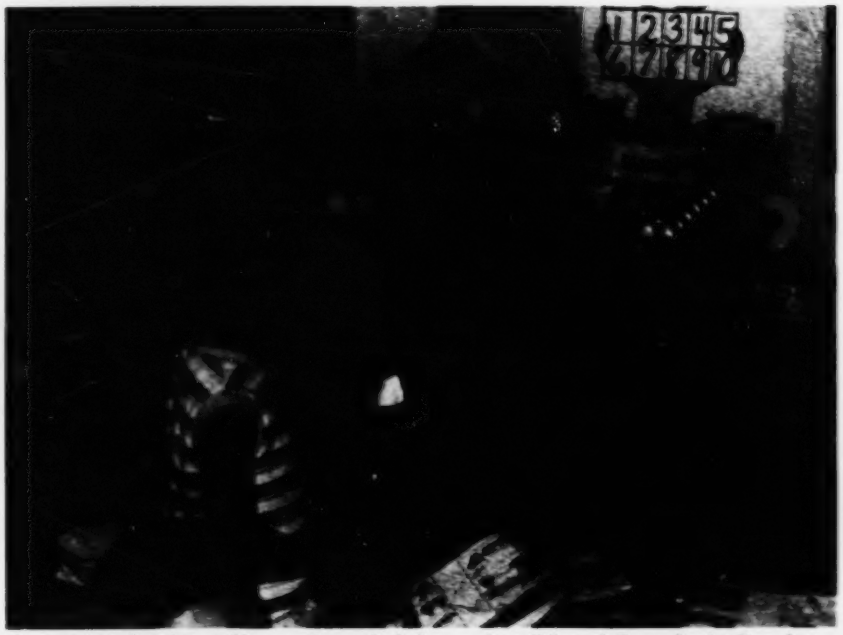
In the process of extending these traditional boundaries, migrant educators have worked at developing needed federal, state and local financial support for migrant students. There is genuine concern inherent in an effort to reenfranchise the migrant student. Migrant educators want the migrant children to receive a "fair shake" in a competitive world that often operates to the

disadvantage of the powerless. Despite the staunch commitment of migrant educators throughout the U.S., there would be no migrant program without sufficient funding.

Federal financial support is the life-blood of migrant education. Without the infusion of federal funds and regulations to the migrant education system, the stage is set for money to be spent on interests closer to home. Declining federal fiscal support may sway local educational priority-setting away from the interests of the transient migrant student. Should this occur, the network of support that has been built for the migrant may begin to falter. Headway that has been gained may be lost. Momentum will fade. Strategies for ensuring this continued support must be entertained by migrant educators and advocates of migrant education. Tactics for attaining this goal remain to be formulated and set into motion.

In addition to the need for funding and programmatic innovation, other concerns threaten the migrant program.

What, for example, might be the consequences of an ever-increasing proportion of illegal aliens providing the labor to work the nation's crops? Almost certainly, one effect would be to reduce the opportunity for U.S. citizens to earn income; with this loss of income comes loss of tax revenue for local, state, and federal governments. Although not clearly supportable by statistical evidence and although illegal aliens may be freely enrolled in public schools, there is an open question about the willingness of such aliens to report their migrant status. With no report of migrant status, no migrant education funding is available to support their education. States and local school districts then bear the cost, spreading an often thin educational budget even thinner. The issues and solutions to this problem are complex, but surely warrant further analysis because they bear upon the issues and solutions germane to the education of the migrant student.



Instructional assistant Norma Aceveda helps student Edward Gonzalez in Camden, New Jersey, summer program. (Photo by Al Wright)

There are still other questions to be contemplated by policymakers. Will technological advances in the agricultural industry create a gradual shrinkage in the workforce required to support its needs? Though there are contentions that some crops will always be harvested by hand, "always" has been the most uncertain of predictions. Will a dramatic and sudden cut in required labor result? Is it likely to reduce the requirement to zero? If so, what employment will this undereducated and largely unskilled workforce find in our society? At present, educational systems have their hands full trying to retain the migrant student through high school graduation. Planning for the migrant student's further vocational or academic training is secondary to the more basic task of providing a successful high school education.

The prospects for a migrant student receiving a post-high school education are diminished in the face of dwindling monetary and programmatic support. Even when a student has the desire and ability to continue education beyond high school, the realization of the dream is difficult. Yet, equitable access to further education is an integral part of full enfranchisement. The mandate is clear. The educational systems in the U.S. must meet the needs of the migrant population while encouraging each student to realize full individual potential. This realization will allow migrant youth to opt for futures more varied than migratory farm labor. To prepare a child to take control of his own destiny is the greatest investment we, as a nation, can make.

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APPENDIX A

A Sampler of National, State and Regional Migrant Programs

CAPR/CAPM (Computer Assisted Program in Reading/Computer Assisted Program in Math
New York Education Department. Promotes continuity in the education of migrant students by transmitting to teachers specific page references in curriculum materials of both reading and math. Used within the school which relates directly to the skills under study by a student at the time of a move from one district to another. Independent of the textbook in use by the student at the present school. This will be linked to the Migrant Student Record Transfer System.

CARE (Community of Awareness and Resources Efforts)
Pennsylvania Department of Education, Bureau of Curriculum Services. Concerned with the establishment of a network of partnership representatives to be trained by the project at the regional/State level for the enhancement of migrant education nationwide. Through the guidance and direction of an interstate consortium representing migrant education programs and agencies of the public and private sectors, the project will develop training strategies for migrant staff and will distribute a catalog of existing partnership efforts. A manual of corporate/community resources will be compiled for regional areas.

DISNET
Arkansas Department of Education. Provides improved information to migrant students and their parents regarding the programs, goods and services available to them as they travel from Texas and Louisville to mid-Western states in search of agricultural employment. A communications network among all cooperating states has been established. Training to all agencies involved with the network will be provided. Pamphlets and newsletters offer information on summer school, locations and time spans, level of educational opportunities, employment, health, day care and social services available.

ESCAPE
New York Education Department. A Section 143 grant now in the fourth phase of the Eastern Stream Child Abuse Preventive and Education project. Offers the impetus for a sustained response to the problem of migrant child maltreatment through statewide prevention programs based upon strong interstate, intrastate, and interagency cooperation and coordination. The major purpose of the project is to institutionalize child abuse prevention programs by "formularizing" prevention models in a significant number of states and equipping migrant education with the trained staff and resources to continue prevention efforts.

HAPPIER (Health Awareness Patterns Preventing Illness and Encouraging Responsibility)
Pennsylvania Department of Education, Bureau of Curriculum Services. The primary purpose of HAPPIER is to bring together adequate information on preventing illness and promoting health with the single largest group in America who are, at once, most at risk and least likely to have good information on health and illness—the migrant population. The project disseminates information to all states with migrant programs through the resource guide of educational materials including training strategies to implement the materials with migrant families.

Oregon Special Education Project
Oregon Department of Education, General Education Division. Addresses the special education needs of migrant handicapped students. Encourages increased identification and provides services for migrant handicapped students through a unified system that facilitates intrastate and interstate coordination and communication. Consists of the following program components: 1) Identification; 2) Referral and Placement; 3) Program Elements; and, 4) Service Delivery and Continuity.

TEACH (Teaching Environmental Awareness to the Children of the Harvest)
Pennsylvania Department of Education, Bureau of Curriculum Services. Addresses the critical issue of pesticide hazards for migrant children in grades pre-K to 8.

APPENDIX B

State Education Reform Efforts 1982-1986

	AL	AK	AZ	AR	CA	CO	CT	DE	FL	GA	HI	ID	IL	IN	IA	KS	KY	LA	ME	MD	MA	MI	MN	MS	MO
ADMINISTRATION																									
Certification									L				L				L								
Competency testing					L				L																
Evaluation									L																
Staff development	L			L		L				L			L		L		L	L			L				L
DISTRICT																									
Academic bankruptcy		S		L						L							L								
Accountability plan									L				L								L		L		
Class size																									
Consolidation													L												
EARLY CHILDHOOD																									
Prekindergarten																									
Mandatory kindergarten								L		L							L								
Early intervention																	X				L				
Prime-time class size								L					L	L			L					L		S	
Handicapped programs										L			L							L					
FINANCE																									
Tax increases	X			X	L							L	X			L		X	X			L		S	
Funding innovations																									
Teacher salaries				L	L		L	L	L	S	L	L				L					L			L	L
GENERAL																									
Adult literacy					S					S			S	S			L					S	S		
Computers/technology														L							L				
Incentive awards to schools				L	L				L									L			L				L
Governance																								L	
Length of day/year				L	L	L		S	L	L															
Parental involvement				L																					
Special pop. (g, t)						L	L						L				L				L				
School discipline				L	L	L			L	L			L	L	L										L
Guidance/counseling			S		S				L	S							L							S	
POST SECONDARY																									
Admissions requirements			S		S				L	S							L							S	
Undergraduate quality									L									L							
Program consolidation						L													L					L	
STUDENTS																									
Curric. change (math/sci)			L		L		S		L	L	L		L		L		L	L							
At-risk youth programs					L	L			L	L	A		L				L				L			L	
Graduation requirements		S	S	S	L		L	S	L	S		S													
Competency testing			L	L	L	L	L		L	L	L		L	L			L	L					L		
Academic recognition					L				L	S			L				L	L					L		
Placement/promotion									L																
Extracurr. participation								S	L		X														
Home instruction (choice)				L		L												L						L	
Remedial programs										L			L				L				L				
TEACHERS																									
Instruction time																									
Teacher shortages					L				L				L												
Certification							S			L												S			
Education													L												
Alternative certification					L																				
Competency testing, eval.	L			L	L		L		L	L			L		L	L	L	L	L		L	L		L	
Career ladder plan	L		L	L	L		L	X	L	L		L	L	L		L	L	L	L	L	L			X	L
Staff development										L															
Loans to attract					L			L																	L

L = LEGISLATURE S = STATE BOARD/SUPERINTENDENT X = ACTIVITY NOTED, YET UNDETERMINED ORIGIN

NOTE: Adapted from a chart furnished by the Education Commission of the States Clearinghouse (4/3/86)

	MT	NE	NV	NH	NJ	NM	NY	NC	ND	OH	OK	OR	PA	RI	SC	SD	TN	TX	UT	VT	VA	WA	WV	WI	WY
ADMINISTRATION																									
Certification						L							L			S	S	L							
Competency testing															L			L							
Evaluation									L						L		L						S		
Staff development						L		L		S	L			L	L	L	L	L		S			L		
DISTRICT																									
Academic bankruptcy										X					L			L							
Accountability plan.		L					S	L							L				L	S		L			
Class size						L		L							L					S	L		L		
Consolidation		L														L									
EARLY CHILDHOOD																									
Prekindergarten							S				L				L			L				L			
Mandatory kindergarten						L									L	L				S	L				
Early intervention															L			L							
Prime-time/ class size										S	L						L	L					L		
Handicapped programs						L															L	L	L		
FINANCE																									
Tax increases	X	L	X	L				L		L	L				L		L	L	X						
Funding innovations										L	L												X		
Teacher salaries			L		L	L	L	L		L	L				L		L	L			L		L		
GENERAL																									
Adult literacy			S	S			S							S	S										
Computers/ technology				L			L	L		L			L	L				L	L	L	L	L	L	L	
Incentive awards to schools															L										
Governance																L	X	L				L			
Length of day/ year						L			S			S			L	L	L	L		L	S			L	
Parental involvement						L							L		L		S								
Special pop. (g/ t)				L		L									L	S	L			S	L	L	L		
School discipline						L	S			L				S	L		L	L	S						
Guidance/ counseling														S			L				L		L		
POST SECONDARY																									
Admissions requirements						S		S		S		S				S	S	S	S			L		S	S
Undergraduate quality																									
Program consolidation																									
STUDENTS																									
Curric. change (math/ sci)				L				L							L		L						S	L	
At-risk youth programs							L								L						L	L		S	
Graduation requirements	S	L	S	S		L	S	S	S	S	L	S	L	S	L	S	S	S	S	S	L	L	S	L	
Competency testing						L	S	L		S	L	S	L	S	L	S	L	L	S	S	L	L		L	L
Academic recognition								S		S			L	S		S	L					L	L		
Placement/ promotion								L							L			L							
Extracurr. participation						L									L	L	S	L			X		S		
Home instruction (choice)						X										L						L			L
Remedial programs						L		L		S			L		L		S	L				L			S
TEACHERS																									
Instruction time						L		X											S		S		S		L
Teacher shortages																									
Certification						L	S	S		S			L	S	L	L	L	L	S	S	S		S		
Education						L							S		L		L					L			
Alternative certification					L		S				S	S	X		L			L		X					
Competency testing/ eval.					L	S		S	L			S	L	S	L	L	L	L	L		S	L	S		
Career ladder plan					L	X		L							L	L	L	L	L		X		X	L	
Staff development						L	L				L		S	L		L	L	L	L	S		L			
Loans to attract					L		L	L					L		L		L	L	L	L	L	L			L

L = LEGISLATURE S = STATE BOARD/ SUPERINTENDENT X = ACTIVITY NOTED, YET UNDETERMINED ORIGIN

NOTE: Adapted from a chart furnished by the Education Commission of the States Clearinghouse (4/ 3/ 86)

FOOTNOTES

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